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# SOCIAL EDUCATION

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## Editor's Page

### How Well Are We Doing?

**W**IDESPREAD and favorable attention has been accorded the National Council's statement of wartime policy, *The Social Studies Mobilize for Victory*. Not only has the statement itself circulated widely, but its main points have been adopted as the "Citizenship" section of the NEA's *Wartime Handbook for Education* and have been reprinted in *Education for Victory*; they are echoed in the "Citizenship Education" section of the Educational Policies Commission's *What the Schools Should Teach in Wartime*.

Similarly the National Council statement has been brought to the attention of a large number of social studies teachers. Wherever groups have met in recent months the program has turned either on the document or on its theme—the responsibility of the social studies in the war effort and in planning and preparing for peace and the post-war world. Spring meetings will continue such discussion. Obviously the organizations of social studies teachers are alert and active. But they include only a small proportion of all social studies teachers, and they are hampered by transportation restrictions. *Education for Victory*, the NEA *Wartime Handbook*, and the Educational Policies Commission's *What the Schools Should Teach in Wartime* should influence some schools and teachers not reached otherwise. But state and local associations of social studies teachers can also work through state and city educational systems, many of which have already recognized their responsibility.

**D**ETROIT has issued "Schools and the War," a series of bulletins on historical backgrounds and geographical factors in the war. The state department issued *Adapting the Missouri Courses of Study to the Wartime Emergency*. In Connecticut the state department issued *The Social Studies Go to War*. The Maryland state department issued *Redirection of the*

*School Program in Wartime*, while in Baltimore the city administration issued *Educational Priorities for the Baltimore Public Schools During the War Period*. The Educational Research Service of the Los Angeles Public Schools issued *Your Place in the War Program* for elementary schools. The St. Paul public schools have issued a series of bulletins on curriculum revisions and teaching procedures in wartime. Other states and cities, and some individual schools, have prepared similar bulletins or programs.

As items in departments of this journal have indicated in each issue, new pamphlets and bulletins on Latin America, the Far East, wartime finance, global geography, democracy and human rights, and many aspects of war activity have been issued to fill gaps in instructional material. A teacher's guide to *Teaching War and Post-War Problems* is available from the Public Affairs Committee, the Foreign Policy Association, or the Silver Burdett Company. A *United Nations Discussion Guide* may be obtained from the United States Office of Education. The Information Exchange of the Office of Education has made available several loan packets, including one on "The United Nations," one on "Negroes in Wartime," and one on "Canada." Dr. Hartley has listed literally dozens of films and radio programs concerned with the war. The current-events magazines and other periodicals are supplementing textbook information on recent developments and topics which have recently taken on new significance. The Resource Units published by the National Council for the Social Studies and the National Association of Secondary School Principals; the Air Age Education Series published by Macmillan; the volume on *America in a World at War* by W. B. Brown, M. S. Stewart, and W. E. Myer, published by Silver Burdett, and that on *America Organizes to Win the War*, published by Harcourt Brace; and the large units on aspects of democracy and of the war effort prepared under the auspices of the North Central Association and published by

Ginn—these give us needed study materials, the lack of which hampered us greatly a year ago.

**W**E HAVE leadership, we have a program that is both specific and flexible, and we have new classroom materials with which we can either strengthen old courses or build new ones. We know that many schools and some individual teachers in other schools have made effective wartime adjustments. But let's look at the other side of the picture.

Many able social studies teachers have entered the armed forces or gone into industry. Some have taken administrative posts or been assigned to the teaching of mathematics, science, or other "pre-induction" fields. Many new teachers are not at home in social studies. Other social studies teachers have accepted heavy responsibility for new wartime activities in the school or community, or both, and have no time or energy for re-planning their social studies courses. Most schools—literally most—seem not to have acquired the new classroom materials on topics which the war has made important.

The effect on the wartime citizenship program of preoccupation with other matters, of inertia, and of lack of needed equipment is clear. Where textbook courses in history, geography, civics, and even Problems of Democracy were taught before the war, too often the same courses are being taught now. Subject-matter modifications come only in current-events teaching. That is a very important modification, but it is not enough. Similarly the pre-induction courses, the Victory Corps activities, war stamp sales, Red Cross units, all of which involve the practice of wartime citizenship, are highly important but not enough.

**W**E ARE united in our will to win the war. We are accepting rationing, heavy taxation, minor inconveniences, and major sacrifices. It appears that the United Nations have won the race for time with which to train large forces, to produce planes and ships and armaments, and to shift to a wartime economy, and that we can, by continued effort, completely defeat the Axis. American achievement is a high tribute to our program of citizenship education in the past.

But our citizenship program in the past is not adequate to the needs of the present and the future. Social change always brings change in what we teach about society. The war has accelerated social change and should accelerate changes in what we teach. That does not imply

scrapping all that we have taught in the past, and starting over. It does imply new interpretations, new emphases, and some new subject matter. Until new textbooks can be written and published, new courses of study constructed, and new programs of teacher training put into effect, the modifications must be made largely within established courses, by individual teachers, aided as much as possible by school administrators and by professional organizations.

**W**HAT new interpretations and emphases, specifically? Let's go back to the National Council's statement of wartime policy.

Much world geography remains the same—continents, physical features, resources, the influence of environment on man and of man on environment. But the airplane and air travel bring new relationships of distance, direction, and time. Those relationships must be built into geography and other social studies courses.

Man's history remains essentially the same, but to us, fighting for democracy, the story and the meaning of democracy, and of alternatives which challenge democracy, take on new importance. American history, institutions, and traditions continue central to any program for developing American citizenship, but they can no longer be understood except in their world setting. The governments, the economies, the ways of living, the needs, ambitions, and policies of other peoples and governments, affect our own economy, ways of living, and policies. We need to understand our enemies in order to defeat them. We need to understand our allies in order to co-operate with them. We need now to study our choices in the making of peace so that we can bring our best intelligence to bear on avoidance of future wars and the establishment of a world order in which democracy can exist and grow.

Our wartime teaching has avoided the teaching of hate. Censorship has not been accompanied by lies and misrepresentation. We have tried to develop understanding and cooperation among young citizens. We have much in our record of wartime teaching in which we can take pride. Our pupils are supporting the war effort magnificently. But let us make sure that we can not be charged in the future with having failed to prepare American youth for the years of their adult life as well as for the war effort in which we are now engaged.

ERLING M. HUNT



# The Role of Labor in the War Effort

Mark Starr

**T**HERE is no need to make verbal claims about Labor's war record. The tremendous increases in production show factually that both Labor and Management are determined to win the war. Some misunderstandings and mistakes have been unavoidable because of the complexity of modern industry in the continental area of the United States and the herculean task of switching industry over to a wartime basis. Our generals can not, like Cincinnatus in ancient Rome, leave the plow and put on the toga of military leadership. Mobilization of manpower, for example, is not so simple here as in Ethiopia. The Lion of Judah had no need for Selective Service Boards, but simply called his people to the colors:

All men 14 to 80 years report, bringing spears.  
Married men bring wives to cook and work.  
Single men bring any convenient woman.  
Men found at home will be shot.

And the postscript is that Ethiopia lost!

Nothing does more harm to morale than ignorance about Labor's wartime record. The uninformed shout for compulsory measures without giving any evidence about its necessity. Show Labor a plan based on facts. Give it a necessary and adequate share in administering production, and its cooperation will be continued. This cooperation has quadrupled war production since Pearl Harbor.

**L**ABOR, according to the official reports, statements, and statistics of the American Federation of Labor, has participated increasingly in home-defense activities, and over two

million AFL members have enlisted as air-raid wardens, auxiliary policemen, and in the scrap-collection drive. The unions have an excellent record in the purchase of war bonds by regular deductions from their members' weekly pay. Their donations of blood to the Red Cross and their generous contributions to all the war relief activities make an imposing total of service.

Forty-six new soldier-cities were built from scratch in record time, but this feat of union men is completely forgotten when a single union officer charges extortionate initiation fees. Union members, side by side with the Marines, fought the Japanese invaders in the Pacific islands of Guam and Wake, and over 1,100 union mechanics are prisoners of Japan. It was union teamsters who drove the trucks on the Burma Road when it was open. Union seamen daily brave deadly submarine attacks with no lime-light for their heroism. Production records have been broken.

Labor leaders have made a vital contribution to the formation of practical policies by the government. AFL and CIO representatives have served as members of the National War Labor Board and, in an advisory capacity, they have assisted the activities of the War Manpower Commission, the War Production Board, the Office of Price Administration, and other key war agencies. The combined War Labor Board, made up of AFL and CIO leaders, meets from time to time with President Roosevelt to work out plans to mobilize the full strength of Labor.

As the official journals show, the American Federation of Labor took the initiative in adopting a no-strike policy and has rigidly applied it to the extent of imposing strict discipline upon constituent units, which have received much provocation to stop work. Naturally the record is not 100 per cent perfect, but organized labor has cooperated in a better way than any other comparable section of the population voluntarily.

## MISREPRESENTATION BY THE PRESS

**T**HE general public, however, has heard all too little about Labor's war record. The newspapers, usually hostile to the organized labor movement and to such new government

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The author of this address to the National Council at its New York meeting in November is director of the educational department of the International Ladies' Garment Workers' Union. Formerly a worker in the mines of Wales, then on the staff of Brookwood Labor College and of the Bryn Mawr Summer School, he was from 1940 to 1942 a national vice-president of the American Federation of Teachers. He is active in several adult-education organizations, and is author of many books and articles on labor and education.

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institutions as the National Labor Relations Board, have preferred to play up strikes, controversies, and incidents that are presented as examples of labor sabotage.

One typical case was connected with the Western Cartridge Company of East Alton, Illinois. This firm had bitterly fought Labor for many years. After a series of moves to undermine the AFL union in the plant, the management fired the president of the union, Francis Bunzy, on the allegation that he had entered a "restricted area" in the plant. The workers showed amazing patience and tried to reinstate Bunzy by peaceful procedures. An Army commission completely exonerated Bunzy and ordered his reinstatement. The management refused to obey the War Department and meanwhile refused to meet the union representatives to negotiate the new contract and settle their grievances. The only resort left to the workers to meet the attempt of the company to smash their union was to walk out.

The newspapers promptly branded the workers as unpatriotic for stopping work just for the discharge of one man. The American Federation of Labor, in the interests of the war effort, ordered the workers back to their jobs and asked for action from the National War Labor Board. Incidentally, evidence showed that the "offense" of Bunzy in entering the "restricted area" was to forestall a threatened sit-down strike of girl workers in one department, who were bitter because the company had failed to act on their grievances. The newspapers made no attempt to give the background of the case or describe the mitigating circumstances. Such factual presentations do not lend themselves to headlines and are not in accord with the general prejudices of the press magnates.

**I**F THE general public had a background of knowledge about Labor, it would not be misled by misrepresentation and would be able to place in proper portion the exceptional cases of labor racketeering. But union virtues have no gossip value. A *Fortune* poll in 1941 showed that of the general public only 26.1 per cent are well-informed about trade unions; 34.8 per cent are poorly informed, and 39.1 per cent are almost totally uninformed. This despite the fact that the labor unions have been front-page news and now constitute over ten million union workers largely organized in the New Deal era.

Here is proof of the tremendous job that Labor still has to do in the field of public relations.

Of course, the samplings made by *Fortune* may not be truly representative, but they indicate a dangerous lack of knowledge. More disturbing is the fact that the *Fortune* poll found out that even union members and their families knew all too little about the trade unions. For example, only 29.3 per cent knew that Murray heads the CIO and only 53.6 per cent knew that Green was the president of the AFL.

High school students, according to *Fortune's* survey published in the November, 1942, issue, are aware of the good done by unions, although 33.8 per cent favored the idea that they had gone too far and should be closely watched. In defiance of Kiplinger and all other reliable Washington observers, the same group of high school students, to the extent of 48.4 per cent, thought that labor leaders should have less power and 36.9 per cent thought that farmers should have more. (The question might have produced a different estimate if asked after the Farm Bloc in the Congress fought for parity.) The students in their voting made a false distinction between "workers" and "labor leaders."

#### WAGES AND HOURS

**C**ONTRARY to press misrepresentation, Labor does not object in the present crisis to a longer work week but it rightly objects to working overtime without extra compensation. In the November, 1942, issue of *Fortune*, again, in an article "What's Itching Labor?", direct interviews are reported with steel workers. The steel workers are anxious to increase their work week, but the companies stand in the way. The article gives other illuminating reactions of the men whose sweat and brawn and brain are indispensable factors in this basic industry.

In June, 1942, the American Federation of Labor gave a list of the increased salaries paid to industrial executives, a list drawn from government and business documents. While the freezing of wages was being called for, business executives were receiving considerable increases. A total of 143 officers had received an overall increase of 26.8 per cent. Outstanding was the increase received by Eugene C. Grace of the Bethlehem Steel Corporation, whose remuneration had gone up from \$271,224 to \$357,724 (31.9 per cent increase). The head of the American Can Company had an increase from \$51,000 to \$154,000 (over 200 per cent increase). One of the vice-presidents of the Lockheed Aircraft Corporation received an increase of 271.4 per cent. Of course, there may have been justification for such special

treatment, but certainly the papers, which attack the workers for asking that increases in wages be made commensurate with increases in the cost of living, should also be at pains to understand why the workers feel that equality of sacrifice has not been fairly applied. The presidential limitation of salaries to a maximum of \$25,000 permits many allowances, and this limit only applies to salaries.

Every official table of wages shows that the workers are not receiving "silk shirt" wages. The current *Monthly Labor Review* gives \$39.54 as the average weekly wage in August for all manufacturing workers, and their average work-week as 42.8 hours. L. Metcalfe Walling of the U. S. Department of Labor reported in September that 7.5 million workers receive 40 cents or less per hour. The U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics in a recent survey shows that there is no big increase in earnings. On the contrary:

Twenty per cent of the families earning no more than \$1,000 this year are making less than they did in 1941. Half of them are making less than three-quarters of what they earned last year. Nineteen per cent of the families earning between \$1,000 and \$2,000 this year are making less than they did in 1941.

#### MOBILIZATION OF MANPOWER

IN THE matter of mobilization of manpower Labor's position is clear. Perhaps more than any other section of the community, it realizes what is at stake in the war and is united with enlightened management in its desire to smash Hitlerism. Granted this willingness to cooperate, what Labor requires is a correct picture of the need for manpower in relation to the surplus manpower which, for various reasons, has not yet been utilized. These people who short-sightedly shout for compulsion as a first measure are, in my opinion, behaving dangerously. If there is compulsory registration and mobilization, that can be safely carried through only as a final measure and as a part of the planned intelligent utilization of *all* resources. Most of the people who shout for compulsion do not recognize the need for this indispensable planning. Labor believes that before any resort to compulsion is made, cooperative procedures should be exhausted because it feels that this will mean increased production which the nation needs.

Some allowance should be made for the fact that during the depression workers unable to find jobs were sneered at as shirkers. They were humiliated in a thousand and one ways. It would be foolish to expect them to have forgotten this and not to contrast it with the general compulsion to work by which they are threatened in

unrepresentative circles. The fear of the repetition of mass unemployment is a psychological factor. The majority of the soldiers, whether they have been in unions or not, expect that their standards of employment will be maintained in anticipation of their return. Those who would try to divide the workers in uniform from the workers without uniform are doing a dis-service to national unity.

Both the AFL and CIO have put their support behind the various proposals to set up a unified war output control to lessen the confusion of authorities in the allocation of manpower. Nothing would be more conducive to all-out effort in production than a greater recognition of the trade unions by a more representative and direct participation in the War Production Board. The great danger of industrial conscription is that its application will not be made by bodies having adequate labor representation. So far, the dollar-a-year men and representatives of big-business interests have been relied upon with much resulting waste and inefficiency. There is no one in the American setup with the prestige and power of Ernest Bevin in the British Cabinet. Labor, as represented by the AFL and CIO, should unite and press for an adequate representation both to secure vitality for victory and for tackling post-war problems.

#### UNION-MANAGEMENT COOPERATION

INSIDE many plants, union-management cooperation has been successfully set up. The War Production Board, which has taken pains to institute such committees, reports that 1650 committees are functioning, covering 3,200,000 workers.<sup>1</sup> Of course before the war intelligent employers had met with intelligent union leaders and developed such plans. We may hope that such cooperation will continue after the war in order to advance industrial democracy.

However, this progressive trend should not be exaggerated. Many of the trade-union leaders, particularly in the auto industry, have been disgusted with the run-around which has been given them in the setting up of these committees. Shortsighted employers have not yet become accustomed to working with the trade unions, and even when they comply with the letter of the recommendations made by the War Production Board, they deny the spirit and intent

<sup>1</sup> See the O.W.I. *Victory*, November 10, and the WPB *Bulletins*, and its pamphlet *1600 Labor-Management Committees*, for what has been done to improve morale and speed up production.



of the recommendations. Unfortunately some of the employers fear lest the unions become too powerful. There has been a continuing weakness resulting from the fact that Washington has not secured delegates and representatives from the labor movement in all the national and local bodies engaged in production and defense. Labor has contributed many valuable ideas which, if accepted, would have solved difficulties. The Auto Workers' Union championed for many months the conversion of auto plants to the production of planes and tanks. Labor leaders championed the bits-and-pieces plan whereby each city should be treated as a production unit and all the plants, large and small, be organized to make component parts to be assembled in the finished product. Philip Murray advocated for many months the setting up of an industrial council for each industry in which labor and capital would meet as equal partners to make their plans for increasing productivity. Plans for oil, garments, and retail distribution have been proposed by unions in their particular fields.<sup>2</sup> An article, "Dieppe and the Factories," in the *New Statesman and Nation* for August 29, 1942, gives some startling instances of how such joint committees improved production in Britain.

In one factory, the Production Committee has organized production teams, including workers from both day and night shifts, for the special purpose of eliminating the dissensions which normally arise between the two shifts. As a result, the time taken for a particular job has been brought down from about 300 hours to 91 hours. In another, the Committee has established special training departments for newly engaged women workers to enable them to learn the job before going on to production. As a result of this institution, work in the machine shop of a single factory was speeded up to such an extent that it had completed two-thirds of the contract before other departments had completed one-tenth. In another factory, by organizing shop meetings at which workers, alleged not to be pulling their weight, were subjected to constructive but candid and public criticism by their fellow workers, the production of an important bomber component was doubled.

Later reports received quote an increase of 500 per cent attained in six months in an important London arms factory.

Here in the United States after the opening of the front in North Africa, the International Machinists Union and other groups in the metal

trades urged that new production records be set and that all interference with production be promptly reported.

This includes interference on the part of management, as well! Numerous complaints have been piling up at various union headquarters from locals charging that workers' efforts to improve production have been hampered and held back by an "unrealistic" attitude of indifferent, of incompetent management. Several strikes have taken place in an effort to bring instances to the attention of government. In one Ohio plant the union employed a time-study engineer who demonstrated that production could be increased 25 per cent per day through changes in production lines and methods at no cost to the manufacturer.

The employer, holder of a government cost-plus contract, refused to make the changes and cursed the union for "trying to tell me how to run my business." Fortunately, few American firms take this attitude. Labor-management committees, sponsored by WPB, are working together to eliminate bottlenecks and increase volume in literally thousands of U. S. factories.

#### STRIKES AND STOPPAGES

IT WOULD be an insult to intelligence to deal in detail with the allegations made against the unions about disrupting production by strikes and unwarranted stoppages. Quotations can be made from many sources to refute accusations based upon isolated and exceptional cases of wildcat strikes. The National Association of Manufacturers has been publicly rebuked by W. H. Davis and others qualified to give an opinion.<sup>3</sup>

The surprise is that there have not been more strikes, because foremen and managers as well as the new unions have had to improve grievance procedure under difficult conditions. Collective bargaining has not yet had time to become a habit. In a nationwide broadcast on September 19, Frank Fenton, AFL organizer, John R. Steelman, of the U. S. Conciliation Service, and W. H. Davis, of the National War Labor Board, described how 2,000 strikes are stopped for one that happens. Secretary of Labor Perkins states that one-tenth of one per cent of working time has been lost through strikes since Pearl Harbor.

Misallocation of contracts to areas with a shortage of labor, failure to spread contracts over the smaller plants, monopolies by patents, bottlenecks in the supply of raw materials, failure to use available and potential labor power, absenteeism due to bad housing and health conditions, the high accident rate—these and not the few highly publicized wildcat strikes are the real obstacles to all-out production. It may be noted that from Pearl Harbor to November 15, 44,500 workers have been killed by industrial accidents

<sup>2</sup> See booklet *Five Hundred Planes a Day* by Walter P. Reuther; the production plans of the United Steel Workers; the CIO Pamphlets, *War Production*; the ILGWU booklet, *Labor Defends America*; and the labor manual for increasing war production, *Produce for Victory*, issued by the Federation of Architects, Engineers, Chemists and Technicians.

<sup>3</sup> See WPB leaflet and *PM* of September 30, 1942.



as compared to 5,694 reported killed in the United States armed forces.

But as L. Metcalfe Walling, wage-hour administrator, said:

Have you heard dramatized to the public the basic fact that where our production falls below schedule the lack of machine tools still stands in the front rank of causes, shortages of materials, in the second rank, millions of man-days lost through occupational deaths and accidents in the third rank—many times the production lost through strikes, which doesn't even show compared to the total lost production from these three?<sup>4</sup>

All strikes can not be blamed on the unions. Colonel Lewis Sanders, Director of Selective Service's re-employment division, recently told a Senate Committee that 80 per cent of our labor troubles "have their basic origin in management."

Labor's record shows that it is willing sincerely to apply equality of sacrifice. However, that does not mean that in the face of rising prices and rising profits, it should allow wages to remain unchanged. It also must resist the attacks of those reactionary forces who think that the war is their great chance to destroy all the advances made under the New Deal.

**L**ABOR's whole-hearted cooperation in the war effort has been described by those in a position to know. The Commander-in-Chief in his message on Labor Day, 1942, said:

Happily, our good right arm is strong and growing stronger. In our own country, in the countries of our brother allies, the people who live by the sweat of their brows have risen mightily to the challenge of the struggle. They have given their sons to the military services. They have stoked the furnaces and hurried the factory wheels. They have made the planes and welded the tanks, riveted the ships and rolled the shells. Production of war materials here is now the greatest in our history, but it is not yet enough. It will be greater still.

This is an appropriate occasion to express my appreciation to the working people of the United States for the energy and devotion with which they have met the demands of the present crisis. They know what it is to work until muscles ache. They know what it means to be weary when the whistle blows at the end of the shift.

On the same day, Philip Murray, president of the CIO said:

Organized labor can be justly proud, on this Labor Day, of its record in war production. Our unions, long before Pearl Harbor, began planning and organizing all their energies to increase production.

<sup>4</sup> Reported in *PM*, November 29, 1942.

That record, in terms of tanks, planes, ships and guns, is a good one. But while we are proud of this production record, we cannot be satisfied with it.

We must continue to break our own records. For we can never be satisfied until we have produced the last tank, the last war plane, the last warship and the last gun that we must have to crush the Axis.

Labor has made many sacrifices for the supreme war effort of our country.

It has given up the right to strike.

It has forfeited many of the advantages it might have gained by the full use of its economic power.

It has given up its young men to the fighting forces.

It has led in every sacrifice and every endeavor that is necessary for victory.

But I do not wish to dwell on such sacrifices. For labor makes them willingly and without stint—and will make many more before the war is won.

But at the same time labor insists that its sacrifices shall not be in vain through failure of others to do their share.

Wage stabilization by itself is not enough. It must be accompanied by a tax program based on ability to pay—taxation that will place a proper share of war burdens on profits and surplus wealth, and that will not soak the poor to spare the rich.

It must be accompanied by really effective price control over the necessities of life, and by widespread democratic rationing to insure to all our population their fair share of available goods.

And labor will insist that the wages and conditions of our working people are such as to assure their maximum health, efficiency and morale for their basic tasks of war production.

For the AFL, President William Green declared:

We need no longer pledge that free labor will out-produce slave labor. The workers of America are actually doing it. They have broken every production schedule. They are setting new records every day. They are producing the weapons of war in hitherto unheard of quantities.

Free labor will win!

We are determined that when the terms of peace are written the Four Freedoms enunciated by President Roosevelt shall be established for all time throughout the world.

And in addition to these freedoms—freedom of speech and religion, freedom from want and fear—labor will insist upon a fifth essential element to this glorious code. That is the freedom of workers in every land to join free and democratic trade unions of their own choice.

And to these declarations I should like to add that Labor's role in the war effort will fit it to play an equally important part in solving the problems of peace, for in this we believe that it will receive the merited understanding and cooperation of every progressive element in our community.

# Some Implications of a World Point of View

Fred L. Parrish

**T**O FIND one's way about in the world of today one needs a world point of view. A world point of view is simply an outlook of history which takes into consideration the whole existing field—a point of view which apprehends what the existing pattern of historical cultures is, and the relative position of each culture in it. The world point of view makes place for, and does not ignore, contributions to history which each people makes to vital human problems. In short, the world point of view is a comparative-cultural point of view. It is a regulative frame of reference for history on a world stage.

In the future it may not be sufficient, in significant research, to consider that great generalizations in social science are sufficiently established unless and until those generalizations have come to terms with more than one comparable body of human experience. It should not be overlooked that the findings in one culture have a greater scientific utility if they are reached after comparable considerations in other cultures have been taken into account.

## CLASSIFICATION OF CULTURES

**C**CULTURAL phenomena, like natural phenomena, contain elements of order in their structures and functions. And, like natural phenomena, cultural phenomena are products of growth in a particular time and place. This means that, historically speaking, human cultures are in their natures genetic and comparable. And, also like natural phenomena, they are

really classifiable. Indeed, the classification of cultures is scientifically obligatory if one is to find his way in the pattern of order which cultures, taken as wholes, exhibit in the total field of history.

As a science, the history of cultures taken as a whole is not concerned with the individual cultures as such, but with kinds or classes of cultures. If a history of a particular culture is to have an adequate scientific approach, as a part in relation to the whole field, then that history needs to recognize the class of cultures to which its subject matter belongs. Logically, to recognize a class of cultures is to recognize the unity of essential attributes in a number of instances: to recognize the one in the many.

It appears relatively easy, when one turns to the cultures of contemporary "primitives" or "uncivilized" groups, to discover among hunter peoples and herder peoples cases where the criterion for grouping fails, as when herders or hunters are found who have ideas and practices which rate them among "civilized." Superficial similarities in customs have confused many investigators, and caused them to attempt to compare the uncomparable, as when, for example, Chinese are compared with the Bantu, and Japanese with the Incas. The sure and unfailing criterion for comparing whole cultures of peoples is to be found in those individual culture concepts which indicate how each people links itself to its "universe" and destiny in the total environment. The structure and function of a people's ideas in relation to adjustment to the total environment—these point out clearly whether, when one sizes up cultures side by side, the differences and similarities in cultures are actually basic or superficial: whether artificial or real.

## THE BASIC CRITERION

**I**F CULTURES of mankind are approached on the basis of how people of each culture looked upon its "world" of experience, then it is found that all cultures of record fall into two main

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The study of our own culture is inadequate for developing the world understanding which is now needed. The peoples of the world need to be studied through the approach and method of comparative culture. This is the theme developed by the head of the department of history and government in Kansas State College.

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divisions: (1) those which have not reached so great a generalization or interpretation as is summed up in the word "nature," or as is indicated in the assumption of the unity of man and the world about him; and (2) those who have attained that assumption of the unity of man with his world and have acted upon that assumption. The former include about ten per cent of the world's population today; the latter include about ninety per cent. The ten per cent are peoples whose cultures are commonly called "primitive." However, by the same criterion or token we had better take note that we are obliged to include in the same category certain historic cultures. Examples include the culture of Egypt before it was Hellenized; that of ancient Babylonians, Mayas, Incas, Toltecs; that of the Greeks before Thales and the Orphics, of Semites before the Exile of Hebrews in Babylonia; that of the Indians (Aryans) before about 700 B.C., Iranians before about 400 B.C., and the Chinese before about 450 B.C.

Today, excluding the "primitives," all peoples of the world, or about ninety per cent, use cultures which share in the conception that man is part and parcel of the one natural world. This ninety per cent of the world's population inherited it through the cultural traditions of the five peoples of history who attained it: Greeks, Semites, Iranians, Indians, and Chinese. These were the only five in all history to reach, apparently independently of each other, the intellectual maturity which gave them the great assumption. Only four of the big five are potent today, the Iranian having declined rapidly after the seventh and eighth centuries A.D.

In this connection we may point to and identify our own cultural tradition from Europe. Based early on the Semitic and Hellenic cultural assumptions, it later gave predominance to the Hellenic and, among Christians and Jews, maintained it into the twentieth century A.D.; the Moslems are still Semitic. This criterion or concept—the unity of nature—, it should be needless to say, is today the most comprehensive and interpretative concept in our own scientifically new culture. It serves as the foundation concept for all the great historic islands of science in the various cultures, and is the ground for all systems of thought found all over the world.

#### THE WORLD POINT OF VIEW

**W**HAT a historical culture is as a whole—that is, what are its historical beginning and end, its wholeness, its individuality—becomes

more apparent when one traces, genetically, the history of the great concepts of each of the great cultural traditions. Many records exist which are older than about 700 B.C., when the cultural use of the assumption of unity of man and his "world" first got under way, but in none of these older records of concepts is there to be found one of universal value that was attained and put to general use.

An epoch-making shift in the meaning of a people's culture occurred when the cultural evolution of the "big five" passed from the unified assumption to the belief in unity. It brought a radical change in the meaning of life and of human destiny. A much greater chasm, psychologically speaking, separated the "pre-unity" and the "unity" peoples within each one of the "big five" than that which now separates present-day Chinese, Arabs, Americans, and others, all of whom are "unity" people.

Thus we are able to point out that ninety per cent of the people of the world today see eye to eye at least on one thing: the unity of nature. But we can see more in the world point of view.

The world point of view holds not only that all cultures divide into those who hold to unity and those who do not, but it also holds that each culture expresses its own "way of life," which is its general interpretation of the great assumption which we have been discussing. Notably in the greater cultural traditions, the "way of life" was so exploited of possible meanings that it gave rise to the variety of interpretations or emphases easily recognized as religions and philosophies.

If, therefore, one would seek to understand people, or groups, or indeed, an individual member of a group in the world today, one's world point of view requires that in each case one understand them by virtue (1) of their own interpretation of nature as a whole; (2) their "way of life"; and (3) their particular emphasis upon that way of life. The behavior of any people is most intelligible if arrived at in the light of their assumptions regarding nature, life, and destiny. Their concepts of adjustment to life and destiny give sense and unity to the living culture.

Today there is need for closer cooperation among peoples of the world, not only as "United Nations" in wartime, but as United Nations for the peace that is to come. But cooperation calls for better understanding, and better understanding depends upon a world point of view that is scientific, that lets each people speak and act in behalf of its own cultural values.



## IMPLICATIONS OF WORLD UNITY

**W**HAT, therefore, are a few implications which may easily be drawn from the world point of view? Suppose we select democracy, and fascism, and "science." From a world point of view it should be clear that democracy is not unique as a product only from the west. It is not truthful to hold that Christianity and occidental tradition constitute the only source of democracy. Democracy, both in ideal and practice has been widely developed, and remains today housed in the living cultures of non-western peoples. Numerous republics existed in India before the birth of Christ. Enormous bodies of democratic assets have developed in the ideas, institutions, traditions, and mores of oriental countries and elsewhere. Any kind of durable democratic regime which shall develop in those areas will be compelled to build on those assets.

We should not forget that freedom and democracy have had a difficult time in our own history, in the struggle with a despotic state and church and their attendant social classes. The world point of view compels the Westerner to cease patronizing his cultural equals. The colored peoples of the world who today struggle for freedom and democracy, are by no means starting from scratch; nor are they marking their start or finish in their struggle by what we point out for them.

What of fascism in the world point of view? Fascism is only a new name for an old method of social control which has put in an appearance in most periods of history. It is the old hag, imperialism, with her face lifted. She destroys freedom and enslaves the common peoples. She masquerades, but she is one that kills to exploit, and exploits to kill, for the benefit of a few. She calls her behavior the New Order, but the mask is fully off now, and the old enemy of free people, which in the past has stalked down through the centuries and wrecked nations, is revealed.

Finally, where does this body of new knowledge called "science" fit into the world point of view? Our "science" is evidence of a great cultural revolution, mostly of the twentieth century,

which started in the occident and spread its effects into all the world. It appears to be a wholly new culture, conceptually starting afresh, and is slowly being unified—the first all-new one since the fifth century B.C. But people who arm themselves with it do not yet know, like the little boy with a new knife, what good or ill may come from the use of it. What the new science resources may accomplish, to provide for a world defense and security, and promote the world's welfare, is still largely unknown.

**W**E HAVE sketched a few features of the world point of view and hazarded a few of its implications. It seems inevitable that the social-science teacher of the future will interpret human relations from a historical horizon that is world wide, no matter what the subject matter may be. At all costs one should avoid treating history as Hegel did. He started out, not with a world point of view, but a world view which was speculative philosophy, and then proceeded to twist historical materials out of focus to fit his philosophy. History to him was the servant and slave of his speculative philosophy. The historian and teacher serve history under a world point of view and let their philosophies sit at the feet of history.

Once the cultural wholes of the field of history are enrolled in their appropriate divisions, classes, and subclasses, there will be little necessity for altering the historical pattern as new knowledge comes in. For the present, at least, the most adequate method known is the genetic and comparative one.

Our perspective of history will change as we attain a more accurate grasp of the world point of view. History will gain in scientific respect accorded it. Recasting of many old generalizations will be necessary. If America follows its trend toward a more adequate democracy and a greater role in world affairs, would it not be wise for us increasingly to give attention to cultural resources operating as powerful forces in the world today, so that we may more effectively cooperate to gain a world of peace and more abundant life?



# Ancient and Modern Tyrannies: Some Historical Parallels

Erwin J. Urch

**T**YRANNIES are as old as human nature. The present world's tyrannies are monstrous counterparts of those of the ancient Greeks. They differ from the ancient mainly in their extent over vastly greater territory and in the corresponding elaborateness of their organization. And of course they are more devastatingly inhuman because they have materials, implements, and devices, derived from science, technology, and productive industry, for lack of which the ancient tyrants seem like angelic pygmies.

But the tyrants of today have not greatly changed the motives and methods of despotism. For example, in ancient Greece during the sixth century B.C., the tyrants of Sicyon suppressed the popular adoration of old heroes by attributing to new rulers the characteristics associated with the old. Thus these tyrants tried to establish new loyalties, propagandizing at the expense of truth, much as do today's despots in Europe. Like the despots who are menacing the present world, the tyrants of ancient Athens, Corinth, Miletus, and other Greek city-states got their powers by trickery, violence, and treason. They usurped sovereignty and established governments which were partly or wholly unconstitutional. Once they were firmly founded, these tyrannies became hereditary for a generation or two, after which, enduring no longer, they generally ended as violently as they had begun.

Unlike the modern tyrannies, however, those of ancient times often tried to improve the life and culture of their cities. They stopped some injustices, patronized art, literature, and philosophy, provided employment on public enterprises, and otherwise set the original precedents for enlightened and benevolent despotism. All

this they did, probably, in order to offset opposition to their unconstitutionality. In marked contrast to the Nazis' fiendish efficiency in multifarious crimes, the despotism to which Greeks were subjected twenty-five centuries ago seems comparatively mild, humane, and reasonable.

In general, the ancient Greek tyrants sponsored the welfare of formerly neglected classes of people, so that dependent minorities supported the tyrannies. As one-party government, roughly resembling today's dictatorships, the ancient tyrannies invented privileges for their favored parties and inextricably involved them in loyalty and vested interests. In Athens of the sixth century B.C., Peisistratus favored the peasants, shepherds, and free laborers, who had been the politically forgotten men, for whom he introduced new religious cults, established festivals, and improved economic conditions. So he won and kept their loyalty.

But ancient tyrants like Peisistratus never trained, organized, and regimented their supporting parties as have Hitler and his henchmen. Neither did they crush opposition by mass-murders of their opponents, gain cringing submission by unprecedented cruelties, and otherwise uphold authority by murderous reigns of terror.

In the Greek city-states on the coastal fringes of Asia Minor, then included in the Persian Empire, the tyrannies lasted longer than in European Greece, because they usually were established, and thereafter upheld, by the Persian rulers. Thus these Asiatic Greek tyrants served as "Quislings" for the Persians. Though the local merchants wanted democracies for their tyrant-ridden cities so they would be free from control of their ships and commerce, the Persian kings found they could more easily control the cities through the obliging "Quislings" whom they kept in power.

The Greeks who would stoop to being underlings and traitors were relatively numerous because, with the help of the Persians, they could have power, riches, and security without the

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The author of this study of despotisms is head of the social-science department in the Senior High School, University City, Missouri, and author of a textbook in world history.

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hazards of free politics and contests. Owing primary allegiance to the Persians, they imposed unpopular burdens on their Greek subjects. Since, having the usual character of compromisers and traitors, they could not command the respect needed for peaceable and forceful government, they often saved their authority by bloody liquidations of popular resistance, as petty tyrants have done in later times.

In reckless bloodshed by tyrannical authority, however, the Nazis have never been outdone. The few tyrants who most resembled them established regimes of relatively short duration, so desperately dynamic was the opposition they aroused. Mithridates of Pontus, in Asia Minor (first century B.C.), Jenghis Khan of Mongolia (1162-1227 A.D.), and Ivan the Terrible of Russia (1530-84) were the only known terrorists whose crimes against humanity even so much as approximated those of the Nazis. They were cruel by nature, but without such wide variety of techniques, and of course without such collaboration and efficient machinery, as the Nazis have.

#### THE SPARTANS AND THE NAZIS

A SMALL prototype of Nazi Germany was the Spartan state, the strangest political organization in the ancient world. By 750 B.C. Sparta had taken control of most of the Peloponnesus, the nearly detached southern part of Greece. Unlike the other well-known Greeks, the Spartans never colonized in distant unpeopled areas when more land was wanted for their fellow-citizens. Instead, whenever they sought more *Lebensraum*, they forcibly dispossessed their neighbors in Argolis and Messenia. Acting as a "master race," they took possession of the best of their neighbors' lands, driving the richer natives into the hillier regions and converting the poorer natives into serfs on the confiscated estates.

Since the Spartans generally occupied the lowlands, with the remaining native landowners in the surrounding hills, communities of Spartans were protected by the helots, as the Nazis hoped to be by the conquered populations surrounding Germany. Eventually, however, since the "dwellers-around" and the helots together probably outnumbered the Spartan citizens as much as twenty to one, the Spartan state had to concentrate its greatest efforts on self-preservation.

Not only did the Spartans seize their neighbors' lands, as the Nazis are doing, but they also reared their boys and girls rigorously. They permitted no unhealthy or deformed infants to survive; they committed their "mercy-killings" by

exposing the unfortunates to the storms and vultures on a mountainside. The naturally fit youngsters, at seven years of age, began the training by which the boys would become strong soldiers and the girls would become healthy mothers.

At first Spartan boys and girls contested together in athletics. From the age of seven, the boys lived in camps, exercised strenuously, learned to prepare their own meager meals, and slept on hard beds. They were taught to lie and steal, evidently to qualify them for plundering and deceiving. Once a year, in order to test what they could endure, they were flogged as long as they would not cry out or groan, which was sometimes long enough to cause their death. Thus, like the Nazis, by a rigorous training and testing of youth, the Spartans developed a physically tough, and a morally perverted, "master race."

At twenty the Spartan young men were ready for military service and for marriage. In groups of about fifteen, clubbed together in barracks, with each man furnishing his share of food and other supplies, they continued their military training until they became citizens at the age of thirty. They could not engage in trade or industry, own any gold or silver, or even talk of money and business, strictly reserving such things to the "dwellers-around" whom they regarded as inferior. As the ruling class, occupied only with being soldiers and citizens, the Spartan men were relieved of working for their living by the helots who tilled their lands and gave them as much as half of what the lands produced.

IN THEIR methods of acquiring *Lebensraum*, in their "mercy-killings," in their training of youth, in acting as a "master race," in retaining for themselves all political rights and powers, and in putting all economic burdens on people whom they enslaved, the ancient Spartans peculiarly resembled the Nazi Germans. The latter are simply vastly greater masters of time, space, and speed in a mechanized world!

But the Spartan system was weakened when, early in the fourth century B.C., it was extended. When Sparta had finally crushed Athens in the Peloponnesian wars, and had undertaken the domination of the Greeks, its government established military garrisons and ruling oligarchies of "Quislings" in the populous localities. Forced by Sparta to tear down its fortifications, Athens soon began acting as an ally of Persia, once its most terrifying enemy, on which Sparta made war with the avowed aim of "freeing" the Greeks

in the nearest areas of the Persian Empire. Remotely the Athenians were like the British, the Spartans like the Nazis, and the Persians like the Russians in the present global war. Weakened by its own excesses of tyranny, the Spartan system began breaking up.

With Athenian help, Sparta was beaten by Persia and obliged to submit to a dictated peace. Thereafter the Spartan system was threatened internally and soon reduced to impotence, at first by passive resistance, ultimately by open revolt, and the "Quislings" were slaughtered. Comparatively barbarous, Sparta could not destroy the Athenian culture, though it had ended the Athenian military supremacy. Actually, the greatest cultural result of Sparta's relatively short supremacy was to start the spreading of the superior Athenian culture throughout the Near East. While today the Spartan system is a memory of a political monstrosity, the Athenian culture is still an influential tradition in political democracy, the arts, science, and philosophy.

#### THE ROMANS AND THE NAZIS

TO THE ancient Roman regime the Nazi regime also shows important likenesses. To be sure, while the earlier and briefer conquests by the Spartans had been motivated by economic necessity, or by the need of *Lebensraum* for their fellow-citizens, the Roman conquests seem seldom, if ever, to have been so motivated. According to Roman authorities, all the early wars fought by Rome were defensive, against aggressors and invaders. Since, however, the only detailed records of ancient Roman affairs were of Roman origin, nobody can ever know the extent to which the Roman claims to innocence of aggressiveness might have been like the recent German claims.

The lands conquered by the Romans were never confiscated outright, as lands had been confiscated by the Spartans, nor held under such a formidable military occupation as Nazi Germany has imposed. Yet from the fifth to the first century the whole Roman Empire outside of Italy comprised little other than occupied territories, taken one by one, at first in long military campaigns. The Roman provincial governors commanded small armies which remained continually in their respective provinces, so that really these areas of occupied territory were under what today is called martial law. Generally, in an area like Spain, for example, in order to pacify the natives and stop all resistance, the Romans had to quell frequent uprisings by military force for nearly

a century after they had nominally conquered the area.

In other areas, the Romans met a similarly prolonged resistance before pacification was completed and, even when it seemed to be finished and provinces were established, armies remained for the successive governors to employ. Not till near the dawn of the Christian era did Rome ever remove its armies from any of its provinces. Only after many years of Roman occupation, in some cases for as long as two centuries, and after colonization by Romans, was real Romanization greatly apparent. Not till such Romanization was proceeding peaceably, however, could Roman conquest or mastery be said to have become definite and final. If the Nazi Germans could learn from history, they would know from Roman experience at least that military occupation of European countries is far from constituting actual conquest or assimilation.

The Romans were, however, superior to the westerners whom they mastered. The Roman conquest in the West ultimately became a cultural conquest, so effective that it survived the decline of Roman political power. Since, however, the Hellenized (or Greek-influenced) Near East remained culturally superior, only the West was ever thoroughly Romanized. While the Romans occupied the Near East and, in the end, politically reorganized it, they themselves were culturally conquered by the superior Near-Easterners, especially by the Greeks. Similarly it seems that, even having much greater agencies and implements for rapid movements, the Nazis could not possibly master Europe even in the thousand years they talk of, for they are evidently not only ignorant of human nature but they are also ignoring the tenacity and resourcefulness of superior cultures.

Though the ancient Romans long appeared as a "master race," they did not originally destroy native institutions, regiment other people's lives, or destroy existing civilizations. Unlike the Nazis, they seemed to have a fair understanding of human nature. Indeed, since they excelled at keeping law and order, and at first taxed their provinces only to get the costs of administering them, they usually improved conditions and even lessened the taxes formerly endured.

But eventually the Roman rule was taken by greedy gangsters and cunning capitalists, whose crimes, lamented bitterly by men like Sallust and Cicero, fell heavily on the provincials. With Rome's destruction of Carthage and Corinth in 146 B.C., an increasingly corrupt Roman admin-



istration started exploiting its imperial provinces unmercifully. Not till better counsels prevailed under the first two Caesars did the Roman "master race" discover that, however personally corrupt officials at Rome might be, exploiting the provincials was at least too much like killing geese which laid golden eggs.

For a century and a half, however, as the Nazis are doing, Roman generals, governors, and "businessmen" had carried out of their occupied countries many tons of confiscated goods. Victorious generals usually returned to Rome with enormous quantities of movable property, which they displayed in triumphal parades through the city. Provincial governors, too, were criminally opportunistic. When enough qualified men were available to fill the provincial governorships, they held office only for annual terms, otherwise for longer, during which they rarely neglected to acquire riches. Though half-hearted efforts were made to stop such exploitation through special courts for trying extortioners, honest governors like Scaevola and Cicero were still rare.

Moreover, great numbers of "businessmen," often friends of the governors, went and returned with them, having shared in plundering their provinces, most commonly through the highly extortionate contract-system of collecting taxes. Although most exactions were not usually legalized at Rome, as Nazi extortions are ordered at Berlin, the extortioners themselves were often such "honorable men" as Brutus and Cassius.

**T**HE worst of the Roman exactions from Mediterranean peoples, however, was the enslavement of captives taken in wars or kidnapped by slave traders. In every war innumerable captives were added to the slaves already toiling for the Romans. Not only did slave traders, between wars, kidnap victims for their nefarious business, but during wars they often went with the generals so as to be near when battles were won. For example, in suppressing an Illyrian uprising the Roman generals took captive a hundred and fifty thousand natives and sold them as slaves; and after one victory alone, it was said, Julius Caesar sold into slavery fifty thousand of the defeated people. Perhaps it was less agonizing to be enslaved promptly, though, than to be enslaved gradually and under the guise of "privileged protection."

Comparably, in Cicero's time the slaves owned by Romans greatly outnumbered the free population in Italy and Sicily, where they were mostly kept. Slavery did very largely for the Romans

what machinery does for modern nations, even similarly depriving free labor of employment. Slaves did most of the Roman farming, road-building, mining, and manufacturing; it kept their ships going by the hundreds; and enslaved Greeks supplied rich Romans with tutors, secretaries, and physicians. The Roman law of slavery therefore became elaborate, for as chattels the slaves comprised a vast wealth.

**O**FFICIAL Rome was long remarkably tolerant of various religions. But when, during the first three centuries A.D., the imperial government was becoming increasingly dictatorial, largely as the Nazis for political reasons, the Romans persecuted the Christians. The vicious Nero blamed them for a great fire in Rome, for which he punished them by a massacre so horrible that he himself felt obliged finally to stop it. But the tyrannical Domitian persecuted and exterminated Christians because they would not acknowledge him as "Lord and God."

Roman emperors, such as Domitian, Decius, and Diocletian, expected their subjects to show allegiance by a kind of emperor-worship, which first arose in the Near East and then seemed politically expedient for the whole empire. Viewing this political cult as subversive of their faith, the Christians steadfastly refused to observe it. They therefore incurred persecution, torture, and execution by the more despotic emperors. Valuing the imperial cult as a reinforcement of political loyalty, the Romans seasonably strove to press people into it. When the Christians consistently refused to accept this aspect of statism, the result was periodic punishing and purging of Christian martyrs. The parallel in Nazi Germany is obvious.

**C**ULTURALLY inferior people do not ultimately conquer their superiors in culture. If a would-be "master race" is, or becomes, culturally inferior to the people it defeats in war, it will ultimately be conquered by the people retaining cultural superiority. Though the Spartans defeated the Athenians in war, they but momentarily triumphed; they could not overpower the superior Athenian culture. And the Romans conquered the West, held it for centuries, and Romanized it because their culture was superior; but, though they took the Near East by force of arms, they subsequently yielded to the superior Hellenistic civilization. The implications for the New Order of the Nazis are apparent.



# The Social Studies and Democracy

Ruhl J. Bartlett

THE whole concept of American democracy is based upon the fundamental assumption that virtually all of the people are capable of acquiring whatever knowledge is necessary for the intelligent solution of the nation's problems, and that, in giving continuous attention to their civic duties, the people will apply this knowledge critically and reflectively. The scope of this assumption is broad—so broad, in fact, that no one could justly place the sole responsibility for its fulfillment upon the schools. But the chief responsibility, nevertheless, devolves upon the schools, and the faith that the American people have in the success of democracy reflects their confidence in public education.

Within the schools, the training of students for the exacting demands of a dynamic democratic society embraces the entire curriculum, and does not rest upon the social studies alone. Training in habits of precise thinking, in the development of moral and aesthetic ideas, in the indispensable arts of expression, and in many of the great intangibles of education suggested by such words as dignity, honor, and self-respect, can not be allocated to any one discipline, however broad it may be. Yet the fact is inescapable that the social studies, by reason of their nature and content, must bear the brunt of the responsibility for the realization of America's great faith in democracy. If America's youth emerge from the schools inattentive to their civic duties, untrained in exact thinking, and uninformed regarding the society in which they live, the schools in general and the social studies in particular can not escape just criticism.

The impassioned debate in this country before Pearl Harbor revealed how great was the need and how serious the lack of clear thinking on fundamental national issues and on the stakes of

democracy in an embattled world. The susceptibility of many people to specious argument and irrelevant appeals, to the defeatists and the reactionary cavers, showed a depressing pattern of mal-education in the tools of social judgment. In reflecting upon recent American history, only the indifferent, the uninformed, or the "diversionists," as Mr. MacLeish so well describes them, will not feel anxious about a system of education in America that seems so badly focused in principle and method for the training of citizens in the disciplines of wise leadership and intelligent followership. It is important, therefore, to intensify and not dilute the processes of social education.

The problem of the social studies curriculum and its relation to education for democracy is not new. It has received increasing attention during a period of more than forty years. The *Report*, in seventeen volumes, of the Commission on the Social Studies, and the widespread activity of the National Council for the Social Studies, form adequate evidence of the seriousness with which the problem is viewed. The place of education in a democracy, the relation of the social studies to general education, and the selection of specific materials in a social studies program are intimately connected both with school administration and control and with the training and selection of teachers. In their farther reach these problems include the great questions of human progress. It is undoubtedly true, however, that at the present time the need for the continued examination of the broad problem is so pressing that an assessment of the work already accomplished requires no apology.

## AUTHORITARIAN VS. INDIVIDUALISTIC APPROACH

AMPLE evidence exists to indicate that the social studies program is in danger of falling into one of two extremes. The first is an old error, in various forms as old as civilization. It is the belief that social truth is beyond human reason, and needs, therefore, to be declared authoritatively through institutions that have been especially "endowed" with it.

According to this view the social studies do not represent a never-ending search for truth

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Is there a body of knowledge of society which should constitute a common curriculum for the schools of a democracy? How is such a body of knowledge identified, and who is responsible for keeping it up to date? These are questions considered by a professor of history in Tufts College.

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but merely are the channels through which dogmatic truths are revealed. Society may be recognized as fluid, and the social studies may keep abreast if not actually ahead of social change, but the source of truth is fixed within a system of absolute intellectual authoritarianism. Teachers are not free: their *libertas* is only a *privilegium*. Inevitably students are largely indoctrinated with the same stultifying attitude. They do not learn to think reflectively on the basis of a free examination of the data, but only to repeat formulas sanctified by authority.

The other extreme has not resulted from authority but from the lack of it. It has produced a condition of utter confusion in the social studies program. Since dogmatic authority appeared to be bound up with the idea of learning a specific body of knowledge, once a revulsion set in the mistake was often made of abandoning an organized and interrelated field of study, out of which a new authority, self-imposed by each individual and based upon reason and knowledge, could be achieved.<sup>1</sup>

When both authority and systematic knowledge were abandoned, the social studies became lost in a maze of divergent paths. They became channels for the interpretation of social change, but the reasons for change were often lost in making a fetish of change itself. It is fatuous to talk about organizing the social studies so as to produce an understanding of cultural and civic values until such values have been discovered. The primary purpose of the social studies is to provide the opportunity for the individual to discover social values.

Under the first extreme, the social studies are bound to the dogmas of revelation, and under the second they are frequently open to the danger of the indoctrination by incoherent and irresponsible social theorists. Quite obviously, the solution of the problem of the social studies does not lie in either of the extremes. The solution can be explored best if there is some general acceptance of the principles or assumptions upon which social education is to be based. Agreement upon principles will never be reached unless those who guide and apply educational policy have the discipline of mind to examine objectively a given proposal even though it conflicts with preconceived notions and immediate self-interest, or unless they can formulate a different proposal, equally logical and definite, which is better suited to attaining the end in view.

<sup>1</sup> See I. L. Kandel, *Cult of Uncertainty*. New York: Macmillan, 1943.

#### NEED FOR COMMON BASIC KNOWLEDGE

THE central issue and point of departure of the whole discussion is the premise that in a democracy based upon universal suffrage there is the need, almost the compulsion, for some common knowledge among the whole electorate. It is the function of the schools, primarily through the social studies, to provide that knowledge. The issue is specifically raised by the Committee on the Function of the Social Studies in General Education of the Progressive Education Association. In the opinion of the Committee "the best materials" for the social studies "are those which can be used directly to meet the needs of particular adolescents." Unhappily, this aim, however laudable in particular or exceptional cases, and in the process of teaching, is often carried to the extreme of throwing all ideas of unity in the curriculum of social education to the winds. An overtender solicitude for the real or fancied "needs" of the individual has created critical curriculum problems, for it has an alluring, if specious, appeal to professional educationists who wish to catch the public eye. It is the newest sophistry of the educational world.

The argument for the special needs of students generally runs somewhat as follows. Different students have different intellectual interests and aptitudes. One may be interested in chemistry, another in aerodynamics, a third in bricklaying, and a fourth in accounting. The schools should not try to make the brick-layer into a chemist, since presumably he would not be a good chemist. Each student should be allowed to find the niche in life for which he is best fitted. This is what is meant by having the schools suit the needs of each individual student.

Notwithstanding the advance made in the field of vocational guidance, the crucially important consideration here is that a student's interests and vocational bents have little relevance to the essential purposes of the social studies in a democratic society. No one questions the desirability of encouraging a student to become a chemist if his interests and abilities lie in the field of chemistry. No one questions the services to society which such a person might render. But what is the relevance of this to the social studies and to civic competence? Once admit that the task of the schools is merely to prepare every individual to do only what he is best qualified to do, then public education becomes enormously simplified, for the person who intends to serve society simply by making bombs does not need

to know anything about American history, and the person who is most apt at dropping bombs on a given target does not need to know the chemistry of bomb construction. All that is needed is a set of aptitude tests to determine a student's greatest capabilities, and a school system designed to induce a student to study the things necessary to enable him to attain his indicated occupational goal. Presumably each person is then happy, for he is doing what he is best qualified to do, and the rate of technical progress is enormously accelerated, for inefficiency has been eliminated. Under such a regimented system the social studies would readily find their proper place: that is, they are taught for those who have a peculiar "need" of them, namely those who are to be the directors of the social order.

BY THE time the discussion has progressed thus far, it has become painfully obvious where the shibboleth of special needs is leading, really to the abandonment of democracy itself. The argument is often diverted at this point into other channels, and the theory is presented that while in a democracy all members of society need common understanding of social matters, such understanding does not necessarily flow from common knowledge of the same subject matter. This is stated in many forms. One common form is the time-honored declaration that a great teacher teaches students and not subjects; that a student may get "a flash of insight" from any subject if it is properly taught. If a person, hardened to educational clichés and the Mark Hopkins two-on-a-log theory, inquires whether this "flash of insight" refers to some particular thing, for example, to the Monroe Doctrine when the subject under discussion is the binomial theorem, he is evasively met with another change of argument, this time the *reductio ad absurdum* of all arguments on the subject. He is told that if some common knowledge is required of all students, the result will be that everybody will think alike!

Fortunately, this does not put an end to the argument, but merely brings it back to reality, for the purpose of having people understand the origins, facts, and principles involved in social problems is one of the precise aims of the social studies. As long as the situation exists wherein one person receives his information about the American Revolution, for example, from Kenneth Roberts' novels, another from a speech made before an anti-British society, and a third from stories handed down by word of mouth, no one

can expect even an approximation to like thinking on the subject.

On the other hand, if thinking on the subject of the Revolution can be based upon the common knowledge gained from an examination of the best evidence available concerning it, there is reason to hope that progress can be made in dispelling false notions about the era of American Revolutionary transition to independence. That much of this knowledge is not specifically related to the particular occupation a person may pursue may be admitted without conceding that all education must be reduced to narrow-based techniques. The important thing is to provide the irreducible substance of knowledge of modern society that a citizen of the United States must have for intelligent and informed participation in democratic life.

#### WHAT KNOWLEDGE IS BASIC?

THE premise that all citizens have an equal right to vote is not without defects, but it may not be rejected without the abandonment of democracy. The responsibility of the schools is to make the premise meaningful and fruitful through a system of sound education. To hold to the premise but to abandon or weaken the system upon which it is based is utterly unrealistic and invites disaster. Yet this is exactly what in many cases is being done. When a student comes along who does not wish to study a certain subject, the easy-going alternative is accepted that something else will do just as well. Thus the educational foundations of democracy are undermined by glib processes and bad policies, shielded from public view behind a camouflage of catchwords, aptitude tests, and impressive but rather meaningless jargon.

If it could be generally recognized that all students need to have a certain common body of knowledge about human institutions, the first great obstacle to the development of a rational social studies program would have been overcome. Agreement regarding this crucially important principle would not solve the problem of the social studies, but it would make it possible to take the first step toward a solution, that of deciding what the common knowledge, in broad scope at least, should comprise. This task is not easy, but it is by no means insuperable, and it properly belongs to those people who have had adequate training, not in the narrow grooves of educational methodology, but in an accurate and comprehensive knowledge of the social studies.



If one examines the *Report of the Commission on History of the College Entrance Examination Board*, the *Conclusions and Recommendations of the Commission on the Social Studies*, the *Report of the Committee on the Social Studies of the N.E.A. in 1916*, the *Report of the Committee of Seven of 1899*, and the National Council's bulletin, *The Future of the Social Studies*, one is struck with the remarkable similarity of viewpoint that permeates the various studies. They are all very close to agreement regarding three desirable units of study for the secondary schools, (1) ancient and medieval history, (2) modern European history, and (3) American history. Probably agreement could now be reached on the fourth unit, contemporary civilization. After the smoke of battle over the social studies has blown away, and this is true about every battle over this matter during the past forty years, the one clearly observable conclusion is that the history of civilization is, and, as far as anyone can see, must always be, the foundation of the study of society. Without it all study of society becomes lifeless because it is deprived of rich content and significant context.

This much unity of program is what is needed at the present time, and possibly it will always suffice, for unity beyond this point can not safely be determined by school administrations or curriculum makers. Further unity must be left to the development of scholarship, determined by the expanding knowledge of subject matter. This phase of development must inescapably be left to the individual teacher. But this will take care of itself and will work itself out along two parallel lines. In the first place, colleges will be able more effectively to build on the solid core of knowledge established in the secondary schools, and, in the second place, teachers can be trained for secondary-school teaching in such a way that improvement in secondary education will extend progressively with the better training of teachers.

Over a period of years confusing variations of treatment in fundamental subjects will decrease with the growth of common standards of scholarship. It is not an exaggeration to say that this type of development holds out far greater hope for social understanding than the chaos of unlimited "free choice" which subjects the curriculum to accretive fads. What is desired is neither a strait-jacket of regulation nor a sieve of loose accommodation; what is desired is a certain firmness of intention to put first things first, lest they be regarded finally as unimportant and omitted entirely.

#### THE RESPONSIBILITIES OF TEACHERS

THE individuals best qualified to deal with the problem of the social studies are the social studies teachers themselves. The problem offers them a challenge and an opportunity. To begin with, they might well assert the right of man to intellectual freedom; for the record of the experience of mankind is man's greatest birthright, and no one, through ignorance of the past, should be condemned to repeat its mistakes or to remain intellectually imprisoned by its folklore.

In fulfillment of this right, teachers could insist upon certification requirements that emphasize broad liberal education. They could sustain, in all reasonable ways, their right to determine the content of the social studies. They could oppose the appointment of social studies teachers who are not fitted for the task. And they could demand the right to teach the truth. For after all, the best safeguards against socially dangerous doctrines are the freedom of teaching and a soundly educated people, capable of discharging the responsibilities of democracy.

Such is the challenge, and if the social studies teachers accept it, they can render a service to society equal to that of any group, in any profession, anywhere.

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The primary business of education, in effecting the promises of American democracy, is to guard, cherish, advance, and make available in the life of coming generations the funded and growing wisdom, knowledge, and aspirations of the race. This involves the dissemination of knowledge, the liberation of minds, the development of skills, the promotion of free inquiries, the encouragement of the creative or inventive spirit, and the establishment of wholesome attitudes toward order and change . . . (*The Unique Function of Education in American Democracy*, drafted by Charles A. Beard for the Educational Policies Commission. Washington: National Education Association, 1937. P. 77f).



# Critical Literacy

Ralph B. Guinness

THE mere ability to read is not enough. Each person should have also a critical ability to interpret and test the accuracy of what he reads. Too much stress has been placed upon mere reading mechanics and the acquisition of information. The important thing to know is how much that one reads is factual, is knowledge, is objectively true. Quality of reading, quality of information, consideration of evidence, not listening to testimony, are the true marks of a well-educated person.

Our pupils should be inspired with these ideals: to be of high intellectual integrity; to be impartial, broad-minded, open-minded, and tolerant; to avoid or overcome psychological fixations or inhibitions with regard to reading habits. Our pupils should thus achieve a critical literacy.

It should not be argued that these skills and objectives are extraneous to education, particularly to education in literacy. For no matter what is taught, or how it is taught, children learn either good or bad skills and attitudes. Our duty should be to teach them skills and attitudes that are critical. This can be done by simple comparative methods, and by simple research methods. A good deal along this line is sometimes done in English classes when pupils engage in debates.

CRITICAL literacy can be taught in any class where the subject is man and his institutions. Critical literacy and thinking can be taught by precept, by direct examples given by the teacher, and by consideration in history classes of newer viewpoints, not incorporated in the text.<sup>1</sup> It can be taught by Socratic teaching methods. Simple research devices can be used, such as investigating

<sup>1</sup> See Howard R. Anderson (Ed.), *Teaching Critical Thinking in the Social Studies*. Twelfth Yearbook (Washington: National Council for the Social Studies, 1942).

In a democracy, merely knowing how to read is not enough. Citizens, young or old, need to read with discrimination and independence of mind. Such is the thesis of a teacher of history in the Franklin K. Lane High School, New York City.

a textbook statement in two or more other books, by use of the writings of specialists, and by use of primary sources. The pupils then would report their conclusions as to agreements or disagreements of these authorities with the text.

Critical literacy can be taught by instilling in pupils an understanding of historical methods, sources, and criticism. Chapter one on "What Is History?" in Henry Johnson's *Teaching of History*<sup>2</sup> has been used profitably for such instruction for secondary-school pupils, as has Allen Johnson's *The Historian and Historical Evidence*.<sup>3</sup>

However, the field in which critical literacy must be taught most is that of the newspaper and the magazine, chiefly the former.<sup>4</sup> For, despite the radio, people will still depend upon the newspaper, especially in cities where one travels to work, for the chief source of information. Newspaper circulation has not fallen off with the rise of radio. Its coverage is more complete, the news is easily found no matter at what hour one reads the paper. One doesn't need to pay particular attention to a special time for reading as one does for listening to spot-radio presentations.

Critical reading of papers can best be taught by teaching the need to read a different paper each day, thereby exposing oneself to diverse political, economic, and other points of view. This is a necessity to prevent the growth of fixations and inhibitions which make for maladjustment. Social conflicts proceed from psychological maladjustments and irrational opinions. Fixed opinions derived from reading only a favorite paper are one source of anti-social psychologies.

Pupils should be taught to read Democratic, Republican, Socialist, Communist and other political papers. They may be required to make a report on some current event, submitting clippings from these various papers. The class and the teacher can participate in a criticism of

<sup>2</sup> New York: Macmillan, 1940 (rev. ed.).

<sup>3</sup> New York: Scribners, 1928. See also Sherman Kent, *Writing History* (New York: Crofts, 1941).

<sup>4</sup> See Johnson, *op. cit.*, XVI, "The Treatment of Current Events"; Elmer Ellis (Ed.), *Education Against Propaganda* (Seventh Yearbook, Washington: National Council for the Social Studies, 1937).

the pupil's report and interpretation. This type of current-events and newspaper study is the important factor which is now neglected in much of the splendid work being done. The same practice should be followed with regard to the use of magazines. Pupils should be taught to read all kinds: conservative, reactionary, liberal, and radical, and to become acquainted with scholarly ones in the fields of history and sciences, for example. No one should have any prejudice against the reading of any particular newspaper or magazine. Pupils should be taught critical reading habits, not just to read a "good" newspaper. Of course, what constitutes a "good" newspaper is a matter of subjective opinion, but "good" reading habits can be established far more objectively.

It may be said that there isn't time. However, if the thesis here expressed is considered vital, then time must be found. Such instruction as advocated can be taught one day a week in any subject, or a special course can be added to the pupil's program. In fact the latter should be done in all schools, since the matter of a well-informed public opinion on current events is of the highest importance, and further it is still more important that such public opinion be formed by democratic scientific methods of critical reading. Such school work will tie up with the home and motivate adult re-education, or participation in that of the child. The necessity of teaching critical literacy through newspapers is more important than core subjects, objectives, or methods. Critical attitudes toward reading, the major factor influencing public opinion, should be the core of education stressing newspapers, magazines, and books.

**I**F CRITICAL literacy is to be taught, it must be the *sine qua non* of education. It should not be a weekly lesson where, in each term, possibly ten pupils will make a report once each week. If done in every grade of school from the fifth year up to the twelfth, then a great improvement would be noted in the thinking of our people. However, such critical literacy must be an integral part of the work, not something done three or four times each term to please the teacher or to get a passing mark. Intensive education in reading must replace extensive education which gives no regard to quality.

As most children never finish more than a year or two of high school, it is important that if such critical literacy is to be taught, there must be a special subject or course, preferably in the first year. Where more time is available the method should apply to subject matter, especially history. Eventually all our social sciences should be taught by simple scientific methods such as many teachers have long advocated.

Mere literacy, again, is not enough. How democratic, scientific, and psychologically integrated are our pupils in their reading skills and attitudes at present? Isn't there tremendous room for improvement? And then how about teachers: to what extent do teachers follow these suggestions for wide reading habits? How many read a different paper each day, including at least once a week a newspaper, or magazine, of liberal and radical opinion? How many each month read a magazine of religious opinion different from their own? Unless we adopt such diverse reading habits how can we truly develop a democratic climate of opinion?

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If we are to have an intelligent awareness of the forces in the life of today that determine what we believe, how we vote, and what we buy and if we are to gain much understanding of the past which has led up to the present, we need to know and use some of the more fundamental principles evolved by historical scholars to enable them to distinguish fact from fiction and truth from false propaganda. The critical attitude can be cultivated without expert knowledge of the peculiarities of ancient inscriptions, of the seals on medieval documents, and other highly technical historical specialties. Many of the more fundamental principles of the historical method can be made quite comprehensible to junior high school students if they are illustrated by simple examples (Donald L. McMurtry, in *Education Against Propaganda*, edited by Elmer Ellis. Washington: National Council for the Social Studies, 1937. P. 134).

# Readable Books for Slow Learners

Helen McCracken Carpenter and Dorothy J. Whitted

**W**HAT can they read? What will they read? Answers to these questions would contribute much to the mental peace and effective teaching of practically every social studies instructor interested in providing worthwhile materials for the increasing number of slow learners in his classes.

Although teachers at all levels of the school system meet the problem, it is particularly pressing on the secondary level. Here the characteristics of slow learners contrast most noticeably with the traits of other young adolescents. With less than average ability to carry on intellectual activities, the IQ range for a slow learner being approximately 70-95, these pupils frequently have been retarded and therefore are usually over age. Although their physical maturity and interests generally keep pace with their chronological age, in reading ability they are still on an elementary level. Further complicating the reading problem is the fact that the majority of these pupils come from underprivileged homes where they are denied the broadening experiences of travel, contact with good books, and similar opportunities.

And yet teachers who have worked successfully with slow learners recognize them as normal in many respects. They learn in the same way as other children and have the same desire for social approval and achievement as brighter pupils. However, it is necessary to realize not only that standards of accomplishment for them must be less, but also that methods and materials should be adapted to their interests and abilities.

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"Slow learners" can and will read history, but their reading needs to be guided in accordance with their interests and abilities. These suggestions are intended for boys and girls in junior high school classes in American history; they should also prove valuable for many senior high school pupils. Miss Whitted is principal of Brown Township School and supervisor of practice teaching in English at Ohio Wesleyan University. Dr. Carpenter is assistant professor of history in Wilson Teachers College, Washington, D.C., and author of *Gateways to American History: An Annotated Grade List of Books for Slow Learners in Junior High School*.

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## PUPIL JUDGMENTS

**W**HAT are the characteristics of reading materials appealing to such pupils and meeting their capabilities? There has been little research on this vital problem. Experiences of a few teachers working with a limited number of slow learners in a single situation have been reported. These are helpful but alone supply insufficient basis for generalization. As a broader approach to the matter, an experiment involving approximately 175 pupils in seven classes selected from metropolitan, urban, and rural areas proceeded during the academic year 1941-42.<sup>1</sup> All groups were classified at the junior high school level and were considered retarded by their respective schools. In intelligence most pupils fell between the ratings of 74 and 96; in chronological age, between 12 and 16; and in reading ability, from low fourth-grade to high eighth-grade level.

Books were supplied successively in sets composed entirely of historical fiction, of biography, of an informational nature, such as Paul Brown's *Insignia of the Services*,<sup>2</sup> or of these types mixed. Pupils in each place gave their reactions to most of the three hundred books involved in the experiment. Approximating a free-reading situation, the procedure provided for voluntary selection of the materials by the pupils and for registering their opinion in both oral and written form of books rejected, read in part, and finished.

Although the participants cooperated surprisingly well during the experiment, educators who have tried to get the honest reactions of pupils to reading materials know what a difficult task it is. The discrepancy between the observed reactions of a child to a book and his written opinion of the material is often marked. Lack of critical ability in judging a book further complicates the problem with slow learners. They sometimes contend quite sincerely that they have read a volume throughout when a few questions will

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<sup>1</sup> The authors wish to express their appreciation to the staffs of Public Schools No. 4, 55, and 168 in New York City; of Willis High School, Delaware, Ohio; and of Brown Township School, Kilbourne, Ohio, for their fine cooperation in the experiment.

<sup>2</sup> New York: Scribners, 1941. Unpagged.



reveal perusal of only the opening chapters. Furthermore, when a period of time is permitted to elapse, they, like others, frequently change their minds about books they once endorsed favorably. However, on the basis of the experiment and the experience of the authors working in this area over a period of years, the following characteristics of books liked by slow learners seem valid and of greatest importance.

#### RANGE OF PUPIL INTERESTS

AS A first criterion of appeal for slow-learning pupils, a book must deal with a subject related to their interests. Just as with other children, these vary among individuals according to differences in taste and sex. Although the interests of slow learners tend to be those of average pupils of the same age, the range of appealing themes is narrower.

Most slow-learning adolescents can be depended upon to like stories of people, especially of famous people who have succeeded despite obstacles. Abraham Lincoln, for example, is a universal hero. Older boys who are not too retarded will read with enjoyment Carl Sandburg's *Abe Lincoln Grows Up*,<sup>3</sup> and the girls, *Abe Lincoln's Other Mother* by Bernadine Bailey.<sup>4</sup> Younger, less sophisticated adolescents are likely to wear the pictures thin in Ingri and Parin D'Aulaire's *Abraham Lincoln*.<sup>5</sup> In addition to Lincoln, other great persons, such as Booker T. Washington, Helen Keller, and Thomas Edison, whose ingenuity and determination brought them recognition, never lose their glamour for these pupils. Appealing also are accounts of those who have devoted their lives to bettering the lot of the common people—men like George Washington Carver and women such as Jane Addams and Clara Barton.

Tales of outdoor adventure or feats of skill and daring find willing readers among slow learners. Popular books of this type are *In Little America with Byrd* by Joe Hill, Jr. and his mother Ola,<sup>6</sup> and Frank Beal's *Davy Crockett*.<sup>7</sup> In fiction, boys like such narratives as Elizabeth H. Buck's *Moccasins in the Wilderness*,<sup>8</sup> a tale of the Revolution on the frontier; and girls, Laura I. Wilder's

gripping story of a pioneer family, *The Long Winter*.<sup>9</sup>

Books dealing with everyday life situations are more likely to be within the range of a slow learner's experience and hence more interesting to him than those which take the reader away from common things. Since the war touches the daily life of every civilian in one way or another, volumes about the nation's armed forces, our defenses, and even the symbols of our liberty have especially wide appeal just now. Representative books of this sort useful with these pupils include Creighton Peet's *Defending America*,<sup>10</sup> Etta Smith's *Salute the Flag*,<sup>11</sup> and Frances Rogers' *Big Miss Liberty*.<sup>12</sup>

The nature of the war accounts in part for the interest of slow learners in transportation and its development, as well as in kaleidoscopic pictures of our country and its workers. Boys and girls alike endorse John Winslow's *Famous Planes and Famous Flights*,<sup>13</sup> Walter B. Pitkin and Harold Hughes' *Seeing Our Country*,<sup>14</sup> and Sophie Lilienthal's *See How We Work*.<sup>15</sup>

In line with their interest in the familiar, many pupils are attracted to stories in which the animal interest is prominent, such as *Boy With a Pack* by Stephen Meader.<sup>16</sup> Girls also enjoy narratives of home and romance; hence the popularity of *The Vale Family* by Helen Hill and Violet Maxwell,<sup>17</sup> and *Polly Kent Rides West* by Robert McCulloch.<sup>18</sup> Somewhat surprisingly, an older girl, if not too sophisticated, will enjoy fiction and biography written for younger children, as Lois Lenski's *Blueberry Corners*<sup>19</sup> or Helen Monsell's *Tom Jefferson, a Boy in Colonial Times*.<sup>20</sup> In this case the reader does not identify herself with the character but considers him someone needing care and protection.

Sometimes the appeal of a book's content will hinge largely on the title. A simple, provocative title makes any subject seem more magnetic. Although applicable to all readers, this factor is

<sup>3</sup> New York: Harcourt Brace, 1928. Pp. 222.

<sup>4</sup> New York: Messner, 1941. Pp. 227.

<sup>5</sup> Garden City: Doubleday Doran, 1939. Unpaged.

<sup>6</sup> Boston: Ginn, 1928. Pp. 282.

<sup>7</sup> Chicago: Wheeler, 1941. Pp. 252.

<sup>8</sup> Philadelphia: Penn Publishing Company, 1938. Pp. 238.

<sup>9</sup> New York: Harper, 1940. Pp. 325.

<sup>10</sup> New York: Harper, 1941. Pp. 160.

<sup>11</sup> Chicago: Whitman, 1941. Pp. 32.

<sup>12</sup> Philadelphia: Stokes, 1938. Pp. 86.

<sup>13</sup> New York: Platt and Munk, 1940. Unpaged.

<sup>14</sup> New York: Macmillan, 1940. 2 vols. Pp. 386, 384.

<sup>15</sup> New York: Grosset and Dunlap, 1940. Unpaged.

<sup>16</sup> New York: Harcourt Brace, 1939. Pp. 297.

<sup>17</sup> New York: Macmillan, 1939. Pp. 234.

<sup>18</sup> Philadelphia: Winston, 1940. Pp. 204.

<sup>19</sup> Philadelphia: Stokes, 1940. Pp. 209.

<sup>20</sup> Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill, 1939. Pp. 169.

especially important with slow learners. Both boys and girls indicated a desire to read *The Cruise of Mr. Christopher Columbus* by Sadybeth Lowitz<sup>21</sup> on the strength of the title, despite their objection to other features of the book. They disliked the more prosaic *Christopher Columbus*, the title of Edna Potter's biography,<sup>22</sup> although other factors were pleasing to them. Prejudices with respect to history also enter. Both boys and girls voted solidly against titles like *Famous Discoverers and Explorers* by C. H. L. Johnston<sup>23</sup> and *Famous Girls of the White House* by Kate D. Sweetser.<sup>24</sup> Differences in sex are especially noticeable in the unfavorable reaction of boys to such feminine titles as *Nellie Custis*<sup>25</sup> or a *Frontier Girl of Pennsylvania*.<sup>26</sup> Though less violent in their opposition to boys' stories, girls are usually not enthusiastic about books bearing titles suggestive of fighting, like *Sergeant York*<sup>27</sup> or *We Have Met the Enemy*.<sup>28</sup>

Consideration of the slow learner's reading interests reveals an important fact frequently not recognized by teachers: namely, that all types of books, be they fictional, biographical, or otherwise informational, are popular with these pupils. Rather than kind of writing, the criterion seems to be the extent to which the subject matter pertains to the interests of the readers.

#### SIMPLICITY AND CONCRETENESS

THE second major factor contributing to the popularity of a book with slow learners is the simplicity and concreteness of the presentation. A first concern relates to the characters. In fiction, they should be few enough to avoid confusion and have names which are familiar and easy to pronounce. These pupils find too difficult books like *He Went With Christopher Columbus* by Louise A. Kent<sup>29</sup> in which many of the names are foreign and a number of the characters enter only occasionally throughout the story. It is important also that the characterizations be direct

and free from subtlety. Charming as is Robert Lawson's *Ben and Me*,<sup>30</sup> slow learners miss the point. However, *House Afire!* by Helen Follett,<sup>31</sup> introducing as it does the frequently satirized Peter Stuyvesant, is an excellent choice for these readers. Though it is told with a touch of humor, the story delineates outstanding traits of the governor straightforwardly and reveals the emotions of all characters in an understandable, unsophisticated manner.

In biography, it is essential that the character stand out from the background of events in which he lived. Two books by Mildred M. Pace illustrate this idea. In her *Clara Barton*,<sup>32</sup> attention focuses throughout upon the heroine; but in *Early American, the Story of Paul Revere*,<sup>33</sup> the central figure is lost in events of the Revolution and the slow learner becomes confused.

Second for consideration in connection with presentation is the problem of background detail with respect to authenticity, amount, and method of introduction. When fiction is used in teaching history, this factor becomes very important. Much that passes for historical fiction is not. Historical novels should contain accurate information in such quantity that the reader gets a clear, vivid impression of another time and age or of historical characters in their proper setting. The device often employed by writers of giving a story an historical setting and relating a yarn with little further regard to conditions of the time and place designated does not make an historical novel. In fact a false impression is created. Furthermore, a narrative focusing upon a real character should be consistent with the known facts of the person's life. This is of primary consideration with slow learners, who read literally rather than imaginatively. Alexander Key's *With Daniel Boone on the Caroliny Trail*,<sup>34</sup> woven around a meeting of Boone and George Washington that is without foundation in fact, illustrates an unsuitable choice for slow learners. Melodrama and fantasy are good reading but poor history.

INVOLVED also is the problem of quantity of detail. Enough must be supplied for the reader to project himself into the period. For this the slow learner requires considerably more detail than his brighter associates and more than many

<sup>21</sup> New York: Grosset and Dunlap, 1934. Unpagged.

<sup>22</sup> New York: Cadmus, 1940. Pp. 128.

<sup>23</sup> Boston: Page, 1917.

<sup>24</sup> New York: Crowell, 1930. Pp. 299.

<sup>25</sup> Rose M. E. MacDonald, *Nellie Custis*, Boston: Ginn, 1937. Pp. 209.

<sup>26</sup> Alice T. Curtis, *A Frontier Girl of Pennsylvania*, Philadelphia: Penn Publishing Company, 1937. Pp. 277.

<sup>27</sup> Tom Skeyhill, *Sergeant York*, Philadelphia: Winston, 1930. Pp. 240.

<sup>28</sup> Ralph M. Crosby, *We Have Met the Enemy*, Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill, 1940. Pp. 366.

<sup>29</sup> Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1940. Pp. 318.

<sup>30</sup> Boston: Little Brown, 1939. Pp. 114.

<sup>31</sup> New York: Scribners, 1941. Pp. 102.

<sup>32</sup> New York: Scribners, 1941. Pp. 141.

<sup>33</sup> New York: Scribners, 1940. Pp. 140.

<sup>34</sup> Philadelphia: Winston, 1941. Pp. 223.

teachers realize. For example, to name a place and give a date are insufficient. The whole atmosphere must be recreated by gradual massing of details, as Enid L. Meadowcroft does so admirably for the Pilgrims in *The First Year*.<sup>35</sup> On the other hand, since the slow learner reads less than other pupils, he can not be swamped by too much detail.

Closely related to the question of the most effective amount of detail is the matter of the best method of introducing the background material. To slow learners the narrative form has a greater appeal than the expository. Although informational books such as *Heels, Wheels, and Wire* by Frances Rogers and Alice Beard<sup>36</sup> are acceptable by virtue of an entertaining style, more generally popular are treatments similar to the aforementioned *Seeing Our Country*, in which the regions are presented in a series of episodes about different people.

Not only is a narrative element desirable, but the more prominent it is the better. Slow learners, whose attention span is short at best, refuse to read books with long introductions or frequent intervals of description. Background detail must be synchronized with the action, not inserted obviously or in large segments impeding the progress of the story, as happens in *Red Coats and Blue*, an excellent Revolutionary War story by Harriette R. Campbell.<sup>37</sup>

In addition, the fact that these pupils want stories in which something happens on the first page and does not stop until the end indicates a need for emphasis on events rather than attitudes. An illustration of these two approaches is the handling of Braddock's defeat in two biographies of Washington. In *When Washington Was Young* by Mabel A. Murphy,<sup>38</sup> events in quick succession make exciting reading. Too mature for slow learners, Jeannette Eaton's *Leader by Destiny*<sup>39</sup> stresses the attitude and reactions of Washington and thus emphasizes mental problems at the expense of rousing physical conflict.

#### ILLUSTRATIONS

AS A third factor contributing to the concreteness of a book for slow learners, the importance of pictures can not be overemphasized. They like best the kind of picture book

which gives the story or explanation by means of illustrations with accompanying short paragraphs of text, such as the Richard Schaare biographies of frontiersmen<sup>40</sup> and Fletcher Pratt's *Fighting Ships of the U. S. Navy*.<sup>41</sup> The importance of pictures in fiction or biography depends upon the degree to which the narrative qualities are absorbing. An exciting story, simply told, requires fewer pictorial devices than one which is not so gripping. Their chief function in these books is to attract the reader to the volume. Illustrations in color, good photographs, or realistic pen sketches uncolored all serve.

Usually simple and easy to read, picture books, small books, and books with large print all rate ahead of those with bulk or an appearance of solidity. The slow learner who is also a slow reader is able to finish a short book before he forgets what was at the beginning. Large, but not primer-sized, print makes a story book easy and disarms the shy reader. In addition many of these underprivileged children have eye difficulties and find it impossible to handle small print or reading in quantity.

BOTH internal and external elements, then, are significant in making the presentation of material for slow learners simple and concrete. To the social studies teacher, who realizes that the relatively small amount of reading done by these pupils must instruct as well as entertain, they are of fundamental importance.

It remains for someone to write the perfect book for slow learners, finely integrating interest of material with simplicity and concreteness of presentation. In the meantime, teachers may be better able to direct the learning of these adolescents in social studies areas by applying the foregoing factors of readability to books now available. For, with patient and appropriate guidance, slow-learning pupils *can* and *will* read. The resulting gains in knowledge and attitudes will go far toward aiding them to take their places in the world, exponents of a democracy which affirms the right of all children, according to their talents, to reach their full stature.

\* *The Life of Daniel Boone in Picture and Story* (New York: Cupples and Leon, 1934. Pp. 56); *The Life of Kit Carson in Picture and Story* (1936. Pp. 46); *The Life of Buffalo Bill in Picture and Story* (1937. Pp. 56); *The Life of Davy Crockett in Picture and Story* (1935. Pp. 56). Also published in one volume entitled *Pioneer Stories for Boys*.

<sup>41</sup> Garden City: Garden City Publishing Company, 1941. Unpaged.

<sup>35</sup> New York: Crowell, 1937. Pp. 152.

<sup>36</sup> Philadelphia: Stokes, 1938. Pp. 135.

<sup>37</sup> New York: Harper, 1930. Pp. 324.

<sup>38</sup> Chicago: Whitman, 1937. Pp. 273.

<sup>39</sup> New York: Harcourt Brace, 1938. Pp. 402.



# Reorganizing a Sixth-Grade Program in American History

Catherine L. Grimshaw

**M**ANY teachers are deeply concerned about adapting the social studies curriculum to meet the needs of their pupils in these critical times, to instil in them a more thorough understanding of democracy, and, at the same time, to fulfil all the requirements of the course of study of their own school system. In our New England town, which is a suburb of Boston, we followed for years what has come to be known as the "traditional method of assign, study, and recite." We attempted to have each child read and digest a basal history text from cover to cover, engaging in the familiar hectic struggle to have everyone "finish the book" before final exams.

Attendance at a summer workshop provided opportunity to reorganize the history course, in an effort to make it a more vital and stimulating part of our daily life. Since our course of study requires that we teach the colonization of America from the landing of the first English settlers in Jamestown through the close of the French and Indian Wars, I chose as my major problem "How Have We Changed Our Way of Living in America?" This is such a broad theme that we could not possibly hope to explore it thoroughly in one year. The following aspects were selected for consideration: home life, health, recreation, education, government, industry, transportation, and communication. Permission to try this new program was granted provided nothing in our established program was left out.

## EARLY AMERICAN HOMES IN MURALS

**B**ECAUSE we are all familiar with our own home life, that was chosen, quite arbitrarily,

Colonial history need not be dull and remote from present interests. This account of the transformation of a sixth-grade course from textbook study and classroom drill into a series of vital cooperative activities comes from a teacher in the Quincy School, Dedham, Massachusetts.

as our first unit. Some time was required to make the pupils realize that we really were studying history while we found out about present-day homes and family life in order to compare them with those of the early colonists. We investigated our own European backgrounds and found out why our ancestors of a generation or two ago had left the Old World to come to America. When we compared their reasons with those of the early colonists we found that they could be classified in almost the same categories.

In order to find out more about the different groups who settled in the colonies, we divided the class into committees, each of which gathered information to report to the others about the classes of people, their backgrounds, and their home life. As a culminating activity we decided to pool our information and to draw a large mural. The fact that this would attract everyone's attention motivated the children to do an excellent piece of work. Our drawing supervisor cooperated in the planning of what we all hoped would be an informative work of art. We proposed to draw houses to show the "Evolution of the Home." We found that the types of homes varied according to the kind of people who used them, the kind of work they did, and the geographical factors which influenced the district.

Our first panel showed the cave and lean-to which were often used by settlers when they first landed in the New World. Our second pictured early Plymouth with its large Community House and the smaller log cabins for family groups. For our third panel we drew early Dedham with the famous Fairbanks House (the oldest wooden house in America), a garrison-type house adapted from the blockhouse, an early New England church, and the first free public school house in America with its Watch Tower. Our fourth group showed the Dutch influence in New Amsterdam. The fifth depicted a sprawling Southern plantation with the outside kitchen, the spinning room, and the cabins for the Negroes. Our last panel brought us up to the

present modern house with a garage, a paved road, and even a hydrant in front of the house.

As we blocked out our work, we decided that just houses might not prove very interesting to others. The committees added to their pictures, some showing people with their costumes reflecting the kind of work they did, some showing farms, and others showing transportation by boat, train, stagecoach, on horseback, and by automobile. The finished product filled all the children with pride. They had a desire to learn more about the colonists and how they lived, probably because they were anxious to draw another mural.

#### HEALTH AND TRANSPORTATION

**W**HILE we were finishing the work on home life, our school doctor came to give the periodical physical examinations. This furnished an excellent lead for comparing what is being done nowadays to improve health with what was done by the colonists. For this work we decided to find out what health efforts were being made by the home, the school, the community, the state and national governments, and such scientific agencies as hospital laboratories and individual doctors who were interested in research.

Our investigations were finally reported in an interesting booklet which explained the work of the various agencies concerned with keeping us healthy, a record of some of the scientists who have contributed greatly to our understanding of the causes and cure of many diseases, formerly considered incurable, health rules illustrated with appropriate posters, and the preventive steps which should be used. Many of the pupils were appalled to discover that the colonial doctors knew so little about medicine and the treatment of diseases, that the early settlers did not know that people with communicable diseases should be quarantined, and that the colonial governments did nothing about preventing the epidemics which resulted in such high death dates.

Since space does not permit a detailed account of our entire year's work, I might mention briefly that our research on transportation resulted in the making of models to show some of the major changes in travel by land, water, and air and in the writing of a book which was bequeathed to the classes who would follow.

#### RECREATION, INDUSTRY, AND GOVERNMENT

**P**RESSURE brought to bear on the teacher resulted in a second mural comparing recrea-

tion today with that of long ago. The subjects considered were: travel, supervised play, unsupervised play, leisure-time activities outside the home, and leisure within the home. Each part of the mural was accompanied by an explanatory report compiled by the committee concerned.

Industry was studied very differently. Each pupil did individual study and reported to the class on a particular change which had occurred in our ways of working. The class discussions which followed the reports stimulated others to find out how and why changes were made in other industries. The pupils gained a great deal of knowledge about technological developments of recent years and their effect upon our ways of living, and the teacher learned a great deal. To make sure that reports would be valuable, the class formulated a pupil's guide for preparing reports. Each speaker checked his report with this guide before presenting it orally or in written form. The other pupils were free to point out wherein the report might have been improved.

The study of government was carried on throughout the year. Last year the anniversary of the adoption of the Bill of Rights was highly publicized. This afforded an opportunity for us to discuss democratic government, the Constitution, and the Bill of Rights. We included in our study of government such aspects as immigration, naturalization, and the laws concerning aliens.

#### THE SECOND YEAR

**A**LTHOUGH the same resource unit is the basis of a second year's work, we have duplicated very little that was done last year. When we started to find out about the people who settled our colonies we used an entirely different culminating activity. This year we dressed dolls to show the costumes of the various groups and built models of their homes and farms.

When we entertained parents during Education Week, we presented illustrated oral reports about some of the stages in the development of our schools. Later the written reports, with their illustrations, were pasted on a roll of kraft paper, to show the evolution of education from the past to the present.

We are now starting our research on the subject of government. We are hoping that the results of our findings will be such that they can be adapted to a mural picturing such aspects as the town-meeting, voting, law-making procedure, and courts.

## RECORDS AND SELF-EVALUATION

BEING fully aware that learning is indicated in changed behavior, I kept an anecdotal record for each pupil. We, as teachers, are apt to become so accustomed to our pupils that we forget what they were like at the beginning of the year. The accumulated evidence of such a record points out growth which might pass unnoticed because it is so gradual.

The impact of the war and the enlisting or drafting of some of the relatives of the children made us wonder what kind of citizens we were. Each pupil, in order to evaluate himself as a citizen, wrote a group of questions which he thought most important in checking the characteristics of a valuable citizen. All the questions were organized into a Behavior Record upon which each pupil checked himself. Last year we checked ourselves only once to find out wherein we needed to improve in order to become contributing members of a democracy. This year's class is planning to check periodically on the Behavior Record which they have compiled for themselves. I found that most pupils were fairly

accurate and honest in evaluating themselves. A boy, who was later arrested for stealing bicycles, admitted that he stole often.

Five times during the year the class wrote essays on democracy and its meaning. It was highly gratifying to find, in comparing each set with the previous results, that every pupil showed considerable growth in his understanding that democracy is a way of living together which involves definite responsibilities as well as certain privileges. Surely their cooperative study, planning and work built good democratic habits.

I have not yet had an opportunity to find out how vital a part of the lives of the pupils this year's program is, but I had an interesting chance to evaluate the results of last year's curriculum. The other day a member of last year's class came in and introduced another junior high school student to me. After a few preliminary remarks he asked if he might show his friend some of the work we did in history last year. As I listened while he explained some of our products to the stranger, I was convinced that he was entirely justified when he said, "So you see, that's the way we learned our history last year."

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Learning to deal constructively with experience is not the outcome of an educational program designed in terms of specific subject-matter content or imposed patterns of behavior. Children can not be given democratic ideals and principles by any processes of verbalism or ritual. Acceptance and love of the democratic way of life will come only out of experiences in which children have been able to identify the unique values of democracy. No challenge to public education in a democratic culture is more imperative than the validation of democratic beliefs and techniques by means of the day by day procedures followed in the classroom. All convictions, all behaviors, all values derive from the process of education.

A child who lives day by day in a group of which he is a respected member, in which he has opportunity to contribute to the purposes of the group in accordance with his interest and capacity, in which his contribution is recognized and appreciated, has the best possible preparation the school can give for living in a society which values the worth of each individual member.

A child who lives day by day in a group which has a large share in determining, under the skillful guidance of the teacher, its purposes, the enterprises it shall undertake, the methods it shall use in achieving its purposes, is receiving functional preparation for living in a society which operates on the principle of the consent of the governed (Helen Heffernan, in *The Social Studies in the Elementary School*, edited by William E. Young. Washington: National Council for the Social Studies, 1941. P. 60).



# Notes and News

## Middle States Meeting

The Middle States Association of History and Social Science Teachers will hold its annual spring meeting in three sessions at Washington, Friday and Saturday, April 16-17. Joint sponsors of the meeting are the National Council for the Social Studies, the Maryland History Teachers' Association, and the Washington Round Table. The theme is "Problems of the Coming Peace." The program:

**Friday, 4:00 p.m. Panel Discussion.** (Wilson Teachers College)

Chairman: W. W. Rodgers, Roosevelt High School, Washington. "The Task of the Social Studies Teacher."

**Saturday, 10:00 a.m. General Session.** (Hotel Statler)

Chairman: J. Montgomery Gambrill, Johns Hopkins University. "Latin America and Post-War Reconstruction," José Antonio Arze, former Minister of Labor, Bolivia. "Education for the Coming Peace," Erling M. Hunt, Columbia University.

**Saturday, 12:30 p.m. Luncheon.** (Hotel Statler)

Chairman: Wesley M. Gewehr, University of Maryland. "This Time Let's See It Through," Clark Eichelberger, Commission to Study the Organization of Peace.

## Mississippi Valley Meeting

The National Council for the Social Studies, the Iowa Council for the Social Studies, and the Teachers' Section of the Mississippi Valley Historical Association will hold a one-day meeting in Cedar Rapids, Saturday, April 24. The meeting will conclude the annual spring conference of the MVHA, beginning April 22. All sessions will be held at the Montrose Hotel. The program for the Saturday sessions, arranged by Harvey Wish of De Paul University, is:

**8:00 a.m. Breakfast.**

Chairman: Mrs. Clara Strickland, Thomas Jefferson High School, Council Bluffs. Discussion, "The Social Studies Teacher and the War," Erma Plaehn, Iowa State Teachers College, Cedar Falls; Kathryn Letts, Iowa City High School, Iowa City; and Harris L. Dante, Burlington High School, Burlington.

**10:00 a.m. General Session.**

Chairman: Arthur C. Deamer, Superintendent of Schools, Cedar Rapids. "The History Teacher and the Negro in United States History," Charles Wesley, president of Wilberforce University. "The Historian and Literary History," Alexander Kern, University of Wisconsin. "The New 'World History,'" Eric Kollman, Parsons College.

**1:00 p.m. Luncheon.**

Chairman: M. W. Schultz, Davenport High School,

Davenport. "The Role of the Social Studies in Education for the Post-War World," Burr W. Phillips, University of Wisconsin.

## Summer Meeting Cancelled

Cancellation of the summer convention of the National Education Association—originally scheduled for Indianapolis in June—automatically cancels the plans which had tentatively been undertaken for a summer meeting of the National Council for the Social Studies.

## Connecticut

The annual spring meeting of the Connecticut Social Studies Teachers Association, of which Samuel Meyers is president, was held at Hartford on March 27. F. C. Davis of Hartford High School was chairman in charge of convention arrangements. The spring issue of the Association's bulletin, edited by Ruth Andersen of Norwich Free Academy, was circulated prior to the meeting.

## Erie

At a special meeting of the Northwestern Pennsylvania Council for the Social Studies on March 19, at Erie, Carl Radder presided and Erling M. Hunt of Columbia University spoke on "The Social Studies Mobilize for Victory."

## Cleveland

The Greater Cleveland Council for the Social Studies met on March 20 for a luncheon and afternoon session. At the luncheon, Erling M. Hunt spoke on "Adapting the Social Studies to Wartime Needs." Dr. Clyde Foucher of Baldwin-Wallace College was in charge of the subsequent discussion period.

## Monroe County, Indiana

The March 17 meeting of the Monroe County Council for the Social Studies, held at Bloomington, Indiana, was devoted to the theme, "The Social Studies Mobilize for Victory." Principal speaker was Allen Y. King, supervisor of social studies, Cleveland Public Schools, and President of the National Council for the Social Studies.

## History in Wartime England

*History*, the quarterly of the British Historical Association, has continued to appear, though it will now appear only semi-annually and in fewer pages. Membership is reported to hold up surprisingly well; "reports from about fifty branch agencies give a generally favourable impression of their activities—cooperation with the Ministry of Information has resulted in the larger audiences and wider publicity for local meetings"; some branches in severely blitzed towns are still active.

The content of *History* is still what the name indicates; the war is not dealt with in articles, though "National Socialism Before 1933" and "The Conquest of the German Colonies, 1914-1918" have been treated in recent issues.

A 12-page review article, "Books on American History," was published in March, 1942, treating a wide range of recently published volumes by American writers, and one elementary-school text by an English author. In September three pages were devoted to "The American History Shelf in the School Library"; all are college-level suggestions.

## "History in the School Curriculum"

A 10-page article on "History in the School Curriculum" by Edgar B. Wesley appears in the Teachers' Section of the *Mississippi Valley Historical Review* for March. Professor Wesley reviews the statements on the teaching of American history that have appeared during recent months in the *New York Times*, *Social Education*, and elsewhere. He concludes that "history as such has declined in frequency in both elementary and secondary schools," but that American history and the use of historical approaches have increased. He comments on present status and prospects of history teaching, and considers "what should be done."

## Pan American Day

Pan American Day will be celebrated on April 14. The Pan American Union, Washington, will send, on request, materials of use in planning observance of the day.

## New Resource Units

Eminent authorities in the field of social science, aided by master teachers in secondary schools, have prepared the third group of Re-

source Units on vital social, economic, and political problems in present-day American life for teachers in the secondary schools and junior colleges. Each unit contains a clear-cut analysis of the problem and a set of teaching aids, with lists of books, available films, pamphlets, and other educational materials.

Previously published and still available are the first ten Resource Units, which are being used extensively in the secondary schools of the country. They cover a variety of problems, including Taxation, Recreation, Race, Democracy, Agriculture, Crime, and Economic Problems of the Post-War World. The new group of five, announced for publication in late April, consists of:

No. 11. *War: The Causes, Effects, and Control of International Violence*. By Carl Friedrich and Ronald B. Edgerton.

No. 12. *Making Our Government Efficient: Public Administration in the United States*. By L. D. White, M. L. Goldschmidt, D. M. Castleberry, and E. R. Carr.

No. 13. *The American People: Problems and Trends of Our Changing Population*. By Frederick Osborn, Frank Lorimer, and Kenneth J. Rehage.

No. 14. *Public Opinion in War and Peace: How Americans Make up Their Minds*. By Harold D. Lasswell and Howard Cummings.

No. 15. *International Organization After the War: Roads to World Security*. By Max Lerner and Herbert J. Abraham.

Published jointly by the National Association of Secondary-School Principals and the National Council for the Social Studies, Departments of the National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. Each unit, 30 cents per copy with discounts on quantity orders of four or more units.

## On War and Peace

*America's Battlefronts: Where Our Fighting Forces Are*, by Frederick Gruin, was issued, in February in the Headline Books Series (Foreign Policy Association, 22 East 38th Street, New York. Pp. 96. 25 cents). It describes 32 areas where American troops are fighting, with attention to geographic factors, resources, population, and the immediate military task. It includes eight maps.

Recent issues of the *Foreign Policy Reports*, issued twice a month by the Foreign Policy Association, include "Why Allied Unity Failed

in 1918-19," by H. P. Whidden, Jr.; "What Future for Germany?" by Vera Micheles Dean; and "What Americans Think About Post-War Reconstruction," by C. H. Rowell (Pacific Coast), B. M. Cherrington (Rocky Mountain Region), and P. B. Williams (Upstate New York).

On the Far East, the *Far Eastern Survey*, issued twice a month by the American Council, Institute of Pacific Relations, deals with wartime developments, with basic conditions (resources, labor, population), and long-time trends (industrialization, trade status of Eastern populations) in the entire Pacific area. New books are also reviewed briefly. (Address 129 East 52nd Street, New York. 25 cents a copy; \$5.00 a year.)

Another consistently valuable periodical for the study of contemporary affairs is *Current History*. Recent issues have included "Allies But Not Equals" by G. Nye Steiger and "Subjugate or Conciliate Germany?" by Robert Ergang (February); "France Will Rise Again" by Bernadotte E. Schmitt and "Manpower Muddle" by J. Donald Kingsley (January); and "No Peace with the German Generals" by Henry W. Ehrmann. Recent happenings in all sections of the world are reviewed in each issue. (Address 225 Varick Street, New York. \$2.00 a year.)

Two recent successive issues of *Vital Speeches* included notable addresses by Franklin D. Roosevelt, Winston Churchill, Madame Chiang Kai-shek, Henry A. Wallace, Wendell Willkie, Lord Halifax, Harold E. Stassen, James F. Brynes, C. J. Hambro, and Charles De Gaulle. Such source material for current events study will not appeal to a large number of students, or to all teachers, but those who desire access to such material will have difficulty obtaining it elsewhere. (Issued twice a month. 33 West 42nd Street, New York. \$3.00 a year.)

The spring issue of *Common Ground* will be as valuable to teachers who wish to emphasize intercultural relations as have been its predecessors. The foreign-language press, the Negro press, Jews, Mexicans, the relocated Japanese, and aspects of Americanization are readably dealt with. (Quarterly. Common Council for American Unity, 222 Fourth Avenue, New York. \$2.00 a year.)

The January issue of the *Journal of Educational Sociology*, edited by Dora S. Lewis, is devoted to a series of articles on "The Consumer Fights the War." Contributors include Mary S. Fisher, Homer W. Anderson, and William B. Brown.

## Stream of Stamps

The following have contributed to the "Stream of Stamps" War Savings Fund of the National Council for the Social Studies:

Grace Bridges, Decatur, Illinois; Ralph A. Brown, Haddon Heights, New Jersey; Margaret Campbell, Murray, Kentucky; Elizabeth Carey, Albany, New York; Erling M. Hunt, New York City; Mary G. Kelty, Washington, D.C.; Royce Knapp, Boston, Massachusetts; Lincoln-Douglas Council for the Social Studies, Springfield, Illinois; Laura Mae McKeen, Memphis, Tennessee; Richard B. Mather, Staten Island, New York; James Michener, New York City; Robert H. Mitchell, Nichols, Connecticut; Kathrine O. Murra, Washington, D.C.; Wilbur F. Murra, Washington, D.C.; Charlotte M. Noteboom, Vermillion, South Dakota; Roy A. Price, Syracuse, New York; Ethel M. Ray, Terre Haute, Indiana; Robert Reid, Garden City, New York; Frank Smith, Holyoke, Massachusetts; Ida Belle Thomas, Salisbury, Maryland; Zella Walker, Pontiac, Michigan; Edgar B. Wesley, Minneapolis, Minnesota; Margaret West, Minneapolis, Minnesota; Robert West, Minneapolis, Minnesota; Henry Willard, Newton, Massachusetts; Howard E. Wilson, Cambridge, Massachusetts; and William E. Young, Albany, New York.

## Helpful Articles

- Downum, Garland. "What College Professors Expect of High School History Teachers," *Georgia Education Journal*, XXXVI:18-19, 30, January, 1943. A college professor of history outlines the information, techniques, and attitudes which he would like entering college freshmen to have acquired in high school history courses.
- Keohane, Robert E. "Selected References on Secondary-School Instruction" (section on the Social Studies, excluding articles published in *Social Studies* and *Social Education*), *Social Review*, LI:110-14, February, 1943.
- Preston, Ralph E. "Sequential Arrangement of Studies in the Elementary School," *Curriculum Journal*, XIV:119-23, March, 1943. "[Scientific method] demands flexibility. It also demands detailed knowledge. A sound sequence plan must reflect both."
- Renner, George T., and Meyer, Alfred H. "Geography for Tomorrow's Citizens," *Educational Method*, XXII:204-09, February, 1943. The need for a "geo-centric" curriculum, including both community and global geography and providing for study of geography in secondary schools.
- Weaver, Robert B., and Rehage, Kenneth J. "The Social Studies Program in the University of Chicago High School," *School Review*, LI:26-32, January, 1943. A statement of program and objectives and a description of class procedure and courses, with a comment on evaluation.



# Pamphlets and Government Publications

Leonard B. Irwin

## The War

*Global Atlas of the World at War* (World Publishing Company, 2231 West 110th Street, Cleveland. 25 cents) is a new geographic aid for the study of current events. Besides 32 full-page colored maps, the atlas includes such features as maps of particular battlefronts, statistics, World War II chronology, and four pages of airplane silhouettes.

British Information Services (30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York) has issued an interesting little booklet entitled *Fifty Facts about Social Services in Britain*. It will make an attractive and useful addition to a classroom file on England, and can be read with interest and profit by any pupil.

The same agency also has issued two pamphlets entitled *Rationing of Food in Great Britain*, and *Clothes Rationing in Britain*. Many teachers will find it worthwhile to have definite information on point rationing in England, since the subject is one which will be discussed in and out of class for some time to come.

The National Opinion Research Center of the University of Denver has recently published the second part of its study of public opinion in wartime Britain. *Attitudes toward the United States and Russia* shows that in general the British public has a favorable attitude toward this country, and admires the military achievements of the Russians, though it is rather doubtful of England's post-war relations with the latter.

## Post-War Planning

*Planning for the Post-War World* (Building America, 2 West 45th Street, New York. 30 cents) presents in text and illustration basic information for class discussion. There is an ever-increasing need for material of this sort, for post-war planning is already a subject of vital importance to social studies classes.

Surrounded as we are by a growing number of plans and programs for a better political and

economic world, it is refreshing to find that governmental authorities are not overlooking the future of the schools. *Planning Schools for Tomorrow: The Issues Involved*, by John Guy Fowlkes and the Committee on Planning for Education of the United States Office of Education (Superintendent of Documents, Washington. FS 5.18:64. 10 cents) is a well-presented statement of what our educational system should be in the days to come. It contains nothing of a revolutionary nature, but rather re-states clearly and forcibly those ideals and principles which most liberal educators will agree should already be practiced.

*A World to Live In*, edited by Leland D. Case (Rotarian Magazine, 35 East Wacker Drive, Chicago. 25 cents) is a stimulating and original booklet. It consists of about thirty articles reprinted from *The Rotarian Magazine*, and dealing with as many phases of the problem of reconstruction and world planning. The value lies not so much in the scope of the work, wide as it is, as in the imposing character of the writers. The list of authors reads like an international *Who's Who*. Included are such authorities as John Dewey, Gandhi, George Bernard Shaw, Cordell Hull, Henry Wallace, and Norman Angell. The articles they have written will provide a fund of material for study groups and advanced classes.

Useful background material for studies of world reconstruction may be found in *Economic Pattern of World Population*, by J. B. Condliffe (National Planning Association, 800 Twenty-first Street, N.W., Washington. 25 cents), which is an analysis of the regional distribution of the world's peoples.

*British Labor on Reconstruction in War and Peace* (League for Industrial Democracy, 112 East 19th Street, New York. 15 cents) presents the British Labour Party's program for the future. Together with the Beveridge Plan, a summary of which is included, this program will give the reader a fairly accurate picture of the social and economic changes which face Britain after the war.

## Current Problems

*What Democracy Means in the Elementary School* is an illustrated pamphlet issued by the United States Office of Education, Number 6 in the Education and National Defense Series (Superintendent of Documents, Washington. FS 5.22:6. 15 cents). It contains many suggestive ideas about the development of democratic attitudes, taken largely from programs in actual use.

A phase of labor unionism too seldom understood and appreciated by non-members is that of "workers' education," that is, the educational programs conducted by progressive unions for their members. An interesting and authoritative discussion of this subject is *Workers' Education in War and Peace*, by Fannia M. Cohn, Secretary of the Education Department of the International Ladies' Garment Workers' Union (Workers' Education Bureau of America, 1440 Broadway, New York. 15 cents).

In 1939 the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools began its sponsorship of a series of experimental units in current social problems. Since that time a half dozen of these units have appeared, and have met with a hearty welcome. The latest to be issued is *Youth and Jobs*, by Douglas S. Ward, and Edith M. Selberg (Boston: Ginn, 1943. 60 cents). Like its predecessors, this is a comprehensive study for the use of high school pupils. Its particular values include a high degree of readability, arresting illustrations, charts, and graphs, and a large number of very practical suggestions for individual or group activity and research. The use of anecdotes to make a point, and the citation of youth activities in actual communities will make a particular appeal to youthful readers.

## Minorities and Racial Problems

It has long been recognized that one of our most serious national problems is that of assimilating the great variety of races, creeds, and cultures that make up our population. Education is the most potent force in bringing about mutual understanding and appreciation. The United States Office of Education has made a valuable contribution in this field in its pamphlet *National Unity through Intercultural Education* (Superintendent of Documents, Washington. FS 5.22:10. 15 cents). It presents a variety of suggested programs and activities for every school level and every type of subject matter, although

the appeal is most naturally to the social studies teacher. The pamphlet is well-written and includes a number of helpful illustrations.

*Intercultural Education in American Schools: Proposed Objectives and Methods*, by William E. Vickery and Stewart G. Cole (New York: Harper, 1943. Pp. xviii, 214. \$1.00. Or the Service Bureau for Intercultural Education, 221 West 57th Street, New York) is a complete teachers' manual and resource unit on the problems of race and culture. It should have much of practical value to offer to the social studies teacher.

The same organization also publishes *The Refugee Child: A Task for Mental Hygiene*, by Ursula Wasserman and Felix Resek. This is a pamphlet reprint of an article that recently appeared in *Mental Hygiene*, and emphasizes the need of wise and sympathetic treatment of children whose formative years have been spent in an atmosphere of propaganda, hate, and brutality.

## The Bill of Rights

*Bills of Rights in American History*, by Leila R. Custard (for sale by the author, Centenary Junior College, Hackettstown, New Jersey. 50 cents) is an historical and analytical study of the bills of rights in various periods of our history, showing the development of the idea of personal liberties in the colonial and state constitutions. It should be especially useful in developing understanding of the rights for which we are fighting under emergency conditions which necessitate the temporary suspension of some of the basic rights of free people.

## Agriculture

A recent addition to the Agricultural History Series issued by the Department of Agriculture is *History of Livestock Raising in the United States, 1607-1860*, by the late James Westfall Thompson. It is a scholarly and at the same time very readable work that throws much new light on social and economic conditions in early America. The extensive bibliography is especially valuable.

Those interested in materials for classroom study of forestry problems may obtain a list of publications and visual aids from the Public Relations Department of American Forest Products Industries, 1319 Eighteenth Street, N.W., Washington.

# Sight and Sound in Social Studies

William H. Hartley

## Motion Picture News

Educational films on Sweden, some in color and some in black and white, recently announced by the Swedish Travel Information Bureau, are listed under "Recent 16-mm. Releases."

The College Film Center, 84 East Randolph Street, Chicago, will send its latest catalog upon request. Many new and important films in social studies are listed.

Films issued by the National Film Board of Canada may now be obtained in the United States from its office in the International Relations Center Building, 84 East Randolph Street, Chicago. Many films on the war are listed in their latest catalog, which will be mailed upon request.

From Miss Jennie L. Pingrey of Hastings-on-Hudson High School comes a suggestion for assembly programs which may be of interest to other schools who wish to vitalize such meetings. A series of films are being shown based on the theme "Where Are Our Boys in the War?" Here is an opportunity to emphasize the global nature of the war, orient students to the varying backgrounds of the world struggle, and drive home valuable lessons in the social studies. A wide variety of films on Africa, India, Ireland, Iceland, and the Pacific islands are available for such showings.

Erpi Classroom Films announces the production of six new regional-geography films depicting contemporary life in the United States. These present the concept of our country as a group of interrelated regions rather than as many political divisions or states. The series emphasizes the individuality of each region, yet shows its contribution to the nation's total economy. Further information concerning this series will be given in an early issue of *Social Education*.

## Recent 16-mm. Releases

Bell and Howell Company, 1801 Larchmont Avenue, Chicago.

*Liberian Republic.* 1 reel, sound, rental: apply. Shows the nature of the country, its government, and its importance in the present conflict.

British Information Service, 360 N. Michigan Avenue, Chicago.

*Oil from the Earth.* 1 reel, sound, rental: apply. Oil is located, a well sunk, a pipe line laid. Scene is the Middle East.

Castle Films Inc., RCA Building, New York.

*The World at War.* 4 reels, sound, sale: \$36.29 (Rent from nearest film library). Nazi rearmament, seizure of Ethiopia, Japanese aggression, invasion of Austria and Czechoslovakia, blitz of Poland, fall of France, Pearl Harbor.

Swedish Travel Information Bureau, 630 Fifth Avenue, New York.

*Colorful Sweden.* 1 reel, sound, color, rental: \$1.50. A travel film showing American tourists in Sweden.

*Snow Magic in Sweden.* 1 reel, silent or sound, color, rental: \$1.00 or \$1.50. Skiing in central Sweden. A short sequence on the Laplanders is included.

*Productive Sweden.* 2 reels, silent or sound, color, rental: \$2.00 or \$3.00. Picture the basic industries of Sweden—agriculture, fisheries, iron and steel, forestry and wood products, gold-mining, and glassmaking.

*Child Welfare in Sweden.* 1 reel, sound, rental: 75 cents. Deals with pre-natal care, free hospitalization, cooperative apartments, summer camps, and the Eastman Institute.

*Swedish Industries.* 2 reels, sound, rental: \$1.50. Treatment of agriculture, forestry, and mining.

## Radio Notes

"Neighborhood Call," an intimate, friendly series on the home front, produced in cooperation with the government, is now to be heard over NBC Fridays at 7:30 p.m. EWT.

"Lands of the Free," the historical series presented by the NBC Inter-American University of the Air, is now broadcast on Sundays at 4:30 p.m., EWT, immediately following "The Army Hour." It is reported that many professors are employing "Lands of the Free" to supplement lectures. In some instances the program has been assigned as required listening, and in others extra credit has been granted for regular listening and reports thereon.

The "University of Chicago Round Table" has changed its broadcast time to a half hour earlier than previously—Sundays from 2:00 to 2:30 p.m. EWT, over NBC.

"Transatlantic Call: People to People" is a new series of programs designed to bring to the people of Great Britain and the United States news of how their friends are living, working, and fighting. The program is offered coopera-



tively by the British Broadcasting Corporation and the Columbia Broadcasting System. On the American end, Ronald Coleman, screen star, acts as narrator, while Bob Trout, CBS correspondent, carries on from London. The programs are heard each Sunday over CBS from 12 to 12:30 noon, EWT.

New York City schools have approved the NBC University of the Air programs "Land of the Free" and "Music of the New World" as accredited professional-improvement courses for teachers. The University of the Air programs will be supplemented by visits to NBC studios and several lectures.

The Educational Department of the Book-of-the-Month Club, 385 Madison Avenue, New York City, will send free to teachers copies of radio scripts, each 15 minutes in length, which may be used in the study of modern authors. Each program covers discussion of four or five books by contemporary writers.

Answering a long-felt need for an informal detailed history of radio broadcasting is *Sound and Fury* by Francis Chase, Jr. (New York: Harper, 1943. \$3.00). Especially interesting is the treatment of the development of radio as a news medium.

The "Victory Hour," official program for the High School Victory Corps, heard each Tuesday over the Blue Network at 2:30 to 3:00 p.m., EWT, is one of the bright spots on the air today. Classes interested in current developments will find this half-hour program rich in factual information.

There is one radio program heard every week throughout the United States which proudly boasts that it could not be broadcast in any Axis nation. It is "Our Secret Weapon—the Truth." Heard over the Columbia Broadcasting System Sundays at 7:00 to 7:15 p.m., EWT, this program takes enemy lies as they are received over short wave, analyzes them, and through careful documentation shows their falsity. One of the sponsors of this program, Freedom House, dedicated to the rights and freedoms of all men, distributes free of charge copies of the "Our Secret Weapon" scripts to schools. These will be found of interest in the study of the present war and Axis propaganda. For your copies write to Freedom House Inc., 32 East 51 Street, New York.

An outstanding contribution toward a more efficient use of radio in the classroom is *Utilization Practices in Educational Radio as Reported by the Classroom Teacher, 1943* with a foreword by Lyman Bryson and edited by George Jen-

nings. This mimeographed volume contains the winning entries in the 1941 and 1942 utilization competitions held each year in connection with the meeting of the School Broadcast Conference. Suggestions concerning what to do before and after the broadcasts are given and illustrated by specific examples of prize-winning practices. Of special interest are the suggestions for utilizing news programs and social-science broadcasts. Copies of *Utilization Practices* may be obtained from School Broadcast Conference, 228 N. LaSalle Street, Chicago at \$1.00 per copy.

### Transcriptions and Recordings

Has your school felt the need for recorded materials suitable for use in explaining to students why America is at war? If your school has equipment capable of playing a 16-inch record at 33 $\frac{1}{3}$  revolutions per minute (the average phonograph plays at 78 r.p.m.) there is available a set of twelve records on this topic now available on free loan from the Script Exchange, Federal Radio Education Committee, U. S. Office of Education, Federal Security Agency, Washington. The first set of six records was described in last month's *Social Education*. The second set, recently released, consists of three discs with a 15-minute program on each side. The first program, titled "The Road to War" (Catalogue No. M-101-a), presents Edward R. Murrow, Chief of the European News Staff of CBS, in a discussion of world events of the last 25 years as a background for the present conflict. "The War To Date" (No. M-101-b) is the title of the second program, which presents Lee White, CBS foreign correspondent. The third program "Mutual Trust Among the Allies" (No. M-102-a), by Quentin Reynolds, debunks the Axis claims that the Russians seek to overthrow our system of Government, and that the British are letting the Canadians and Australians do their fighting for them. Herbert Agar, publisher of the *Louisville Courier-Journal* and prominent public speaker, discusses "Why We are at War" on the fourth program (No. M-102-b). In an address to the 82nd Division, Sergeant Alvin York speaks on "Freedom is Worth Fighting For" in the fifth recording (No. M-103-a). Lastly, program six presents William L. Shirer in "Our Fascist Enemies."

An album of "Latin American Folk Songs," consisting of four 12-inch records on which are recorded 21 songs from 5 countries, is available from Best Record Company, 29 West 57th

Street, New York. The price is \$6.61. These records may be played on an ordinary phonograph.

### Free and Inexpensive Material

The Greyhound Lines announces a new, full-color chart showing on one side the flags, capitals, and population of the United Nations, and on the other side the insignias of rank and service of the Army, Navy, and Marines, the decorations awarded for bravery, and the various divisions or organizations of the services. Write to the Greyhound Bus Lines office in your nearest large city.

The Air Transport Association of America, 1515 Massachusetts Avenue, Washington, will send valuable graph material in a pamphlet entitled "Little Known Facts About the Scheduled Air Transport Industry." There is no charge for this pamphlet.

Time Inc., 9 Rockefeller Plaza, New York, has available three maps at 5 cents each. They are on the "Atlantic Arena," "Pacific Arena," and "World Island."

The Council Against Intolerance in America, 17 East 42nd Street, New York, is still able to furnish teachers with copies of the large wall map entitled "America—A Nation of One People from Many Countries." This large, wall-size, three-color, picture map shows where Americans came from, where they settled, their contributions to the arts, science, literature and industry. The map is free for the asking.

The Coca-Cola Company is currently furnishing schools with a series of teaching materials entitled "Our America." To date four sets of materials have been issued, one each on "Oil," "Steel," "Electricity," and "Airplanes." The teaching kits consist of handbooks, maps, charts, pictures, and posters. This is one of the most ambitious projects in the production of school materials ever undertaken for advertising purposes by a commercial firm. Most of the material is excellent. Maps and pictures are colorful, attractive, and useful. Write to your local Coca-Cola bottling company or branch office for further information.

"Man and Wings" is the title of a set of photos of modern planes which will be sent upon request by the Curtiss-Wright Corporation, Airplane Division, Buffalo, New York.

### New Tools for Learning

An organization which serves as a clearing

house for films, recordings, transcripts, and pamphlets on economic and social problems has been set up to aid teachers. New Tools for Learning, 7 West 16th Street, New York, effectively serves to bring the teacher in contact with the latest in teaching material. The latest catalog of this organization lists twenty vital topics and under each is gathered the most recent films, records, and pamphlets on this subject. The catalog may be had for the asking and it furnishes a valuable source of information as to just what is available for vitalizing classroom presentations.

### Geography in the Social Studies

A pamphlet containing several suggested units showing how modern maps may be used for the teaching of geography in the social studies classroom is available free from Weber Costello Company, Chicago Heights, Illinois. This useful 8-page folder is the work of Howard E. Wilson and Donn V. Hart of Harvard University. Suggested map activities are given for use in courses in world history, United States history, and Modern Problems. The authors stress the importance of map analysis as an essential phase of all instruction in social studies.

### Helpful Articles

Beach, Ruth. "Community Life Project," *The Grade Teacher*, LX:30-31, March, 1943. An interesting use of table models and other activities to increase patriotism through community interest.

Dixon, Dorothy I. "Community Resources Pave the Way," *Educational Screen*, XXII:47-51, February, 1943. One county's complete working schedule for enriching a project with audio-visual aids in rural areas.

Grimm, Dorothy, H. "A Table Airport to Build," *The Instructor*, LII:42-43, March, 1943. A grade-school project designed to familiarize pupils with the general plan of an airport.

Russell, Edgar F. "Map Drawing in 'One Easy Lesson'," *Journal of Education*, CXXVI: 48-50, February, 1943. Suggestions of a practical nature for the teacher who desires to make his own maps.

Weingarten, Samuel. "A Junior College Demonstration Room in the Humanities," *Educational Screen*, XXII: 44-46, 58, February, 1943. How a department room was organized to stimulate and vivify cultural studies by visualization.

Zenemann, John L. "A Map in Three Dimensions," *School Arts*, XLII:230-231, March, 1943. How to build a relief map.

# Book Reviews

THE GROWTH OF THE AMERICAN REPUBLIC. By Samuel Eliot Morison and Henry Steele Commager. New York: Oxford, 1942. 3rd ed. Vol. I, pp. xvi, 825; Vol. II, pp. xvi, 758. \$3.50 each.

Morison and Commager's volumes have already won such a well-established place as texts in American history for college students that they need no introduction to the academic fraternity. They are reported to have found favor as reference books for journalists and editors and as general histories for the laymen as well. It is doubtful if any volumes in their field surpass them in solidity of subject matter, in maturity of scholarship, or in literary craftsmanship.

The second edition (1937) constituted a rather thorough rewriting and very substantial enlargement of the original single volume. The present revision is less pretentious, but it is different from the second in two major respects: (1) five introductory chapters extend the story backward to the origin of man in America and provide a brief survey of the colonial era; (2) the account of the recent period has been somewhat revised and brought up to date by the inclusion of chapters on American society since 1918, the second administration of Franklin D. Roosevelt, and the Second World War (to December, 1941). These additions total slightly less than two hundred pages, but to offset this increase, condensations have been made at various points and some material has been eliminated. These modifications occur principally in the first volume of the second edition, notably in the first and third chapters and in the five covering the Federalist period which have now been compressed into three. It is regrettable that some choice quotations and descriptive passages have had to be excised, but the tightening up of the narrative of the first volume is an improvement. One wishes that more emphasis had been given in the revision to the coming of industrialism to the United States in the first-quarter of the nineteenth century. Only passing references are made to it. A fuller treatment would help to make more understandable and significant to the student Clay's demand for the "American System," Marshall's great decisions, Jacksonian Democracy, and the rise of the capitalist and organized labor groups in the ensuing years.

The new chapters should increase the service-

ability of the texts. The brief account of the colonial period shows excellent discrimination in the selection of subject matter; it is vividly presented and enlivened by frequent flashes of humor. One catches something of the atmosphere of the time, and the leaders and their people come alive. The review of the major social, cultural, and scientific trends since 1918 and of the complicated events at home and abroad during the past few years is also successfully handled. Here the authors have managed to be fairly inclusive, and certainly suggestive; yet they have avoided mere cataloging. As in many other parts of the volumes their vigorous liberalism is apparent. Rumor quotes Professor Morison as having said when the second edition appeared that although his co-author was a 100 per cent New Dealer, he himself could scarcely be rated as more than an 87½ percent. If there has been any marked lessening of their sympathy for Rooseveltian policies since that time, the concluding chapters of the third edition do not disclose it.

A. HOWARD MENEELY

Dartmouth College

THE RISE OF OUR FREE NATION. By Edna McGuire and Thomas B. Portwood. New York: Macmillan, 1942. Pp. x, 774, xlv. \$1.88.

When one considers the number of very excellent texts in American history which have been published within the past few years, it is hardly a sufficient recommendation of a newcomer to say that it has no serious weaknesses. By the same token it is also unreasonable to expect that each succeeding work shall contain unique features and radical departures of a meritorious nature. Despite the glowing advance reports issued by publishers, the production of texts in American history has assumed something of a pattern. Although they vary in their excellence from text to text, the use of the unit organization, the various teaching aids, and even the relative subject-matter emphases seem to have become rather standardized. This condition is probably to be taken as evidence of the high level of quality which has been attained. Apparently recognizing this observation, what the authors of *The Rise of Our Free Nation* have done, and probably very



wisely done, is to utilize to their best advantage in a conventional general treatment most of known better techniques for making history meaningful.

Throughout the nine large divisions into which the text is organized, every effort has been made to promote interest and readability. Dramatic episodes, the use of the historical present, and interesting diversions into the life of social groups all contribute to this end. Sentences and paragraphs are short, and vocabulary difficulties should be reduced to a minimum by the device of following difficult terms with a synonym or explanatory phrase in parentheses.

The teaching aids have been carefully integrated into the body of the text. Maps are not obscured by superfluous detail, and exercises are provided for the development of map reading skills. Charts are of the pictorial type produced by the Pictograph Corporation. In addition there are bibliographies of books and films, topics for discussion, and time charts.

With the exception of parts of the chapters entitled "America Enters New World Relationships" and "The Nation Enters the Power Age," few new areas of subject matter are treated. To be in harmony with present demands the claim is made by the publishers that the growth of democracy is stressed. However a careful examination will reveal that there is little more direct emphasis upon this topic than has been commonly found in other good texts for the past decade. An examination of the subject matter will also show that the text is not yet the answer for those who are concerned with differentiating the courses of study of junior and senior high school American history.

HARRY D. BERG

University of New Hampshire

OUR FREEDOM SERIES. By Chester S. Williams. Evanston: Row Peterson, 1940-41. 48¢.

*The Rights We Defend*. Pp. 71.

*Religious Liberty*. Pp. 72.

*Fair Trial*. Pp. 72.

*Ways of Dictatorship*. Pp. 96.

BASIC SOCIAL EDUCATION SERIES. Evanston: Row Peterson, 1941-42. 32¢.

*A Primer of Economics*. By Stuart Chase. Pp. 60.

*Money and Banks*. By Margaret M. Thomson. Pp. 36.

*Trade and Commerce*. By Frederick V. Waugh. Pp. 36.

*The Wise Consumer*. By Ruth Barry. Pp. 47.

*Looking Ahead*. By E. W. Andrews. Pp. 48.

*Our Federal Government*. By Benjamin Brodsky. Pp. 36.

*State Government*. By Helen Hanford, Romance C. Koopman, Karyl Kanet Chipman. Pp. 36.

*City Government*. By Howard J. Akers. Pp. 36.

*Planning Cities for Today and Tomorrow*. By Fred A. Crane. Pp. 36.

*Youth Under Dictators*. By Oril Brown. Pp. 36.

*Public Health in America*. By Avis E. Edgerton. Pp. 36.

The first three booklets, each seventy-two pages long, are parts of the "Our Freedom Series." Each booklet follows the same general pattern. Mr. Williams, specialist in civic education in the U. S. Office of Education, traces the history of our freedoms, dwelling upon the contributions of past civilizations, such as Egyptian, Hebrew, and Grecian, to the growth of these freedoms. Special emphasis is placed upon the contributions of our own country. The author attempts to explain the American interpretation of what our freedoms mean, and to inculcate in each pupil's heart a love for these freedoms great enough to defend them against all foreign and domestic enemies. Numerous illustrations, clear and well-spaced printing, the frequent use of imaginary conversations and anecdotes, helps to create and retain the interest of the junior high school reader.

In his zeal for a scholarly approach, the author has devoted too much space to the historical background of our freedoms. The vocabulary used is much too difficult or too vague for the average pupil. This fault is especially noticeable in the published quotations of speeches made by famous men of the past. *The Rights We Defend* uses such words as "oppressive" (p. 13), "infinite investigation, disputation, and declamation" (p. 51).

This same booklet illustrates another fault, that of inadvertently encouraging the pupil to form an undesirable attitude. For example, the author relates the story of a farmer speaking resentfully concerning the taxes imposed upon him by the state governments of 1787: "Tax! Tax! Tax! by thunder, it's rank robbery . . . one blasted tax after another" (p. 47). When he is told that it is the work of the government and there is little he could do about it, he retorts, "We'll see about that. When a man can't make a living, that's the time to do a little fightin' maybe" (p. 48).

*Ways of Dictatorship* describes the method used by Hitler, Mussolini, and Stalin in their rise

to power. Emphasis is placed upon the Nazi movement in our own country. The author warns us of how to guard ourselves against a dictatorship within the United States. Excellent illustrations, together with the recency of the history involved, make for absorbing and functional reading. The booklet is especially adapted for a short unit in a ninth-grade social studies class.

In general, the "Basic Social Education Series" provides interesting, well-illustrated, simply written booklets, which may be used in any or all of the grades of the junior high school. Each booklet, about fifty pages in length, forms the basis of study for a unit which may be covered within two or three weeks time. *Our Federal Government* emphasizes the applications of the Constitution to our present society, with special stress on the economic aids provided to our farmers, business men and laborers. *Youth Under Dictators*, in describing the daily life of the youngster of Germany and Russia, describes the differences between fascism and communism. The booklet is especially adapted to pupils of the seventh grade.

*Money and Banks* may be used as a textbook for advanced pupils of the ninth grade. The subject matter, such as the fifty-nine cent dollar, clearing houses, etc., is too difficult for most ninth-grade children. Stuart Chase's *Primer of Economics* attempts to explain the causes for the depression of 1929, and recommends possible cures. Because of present economic conditions, this booklet would be of academic interest only to a very few pupils.

The Series provides few teaching aids. No bibliography, index, table of contents, paragraph headings, or questions and problems are offered. However, in general, the Series presents a useful, up-to-date study in government, economics, and vocational guidance, which should interest both teacher and pupils.

THEODORE LIBBER

McKinley High School  
Washington, D.C.

OF THE PEOPLE. By Harry A. Warfel and Elizabeth W. Manwaring, Eds. New York: Oxford, 1939. Pp. xi, 699. \$2.30.

DEMOCRACY, LIBERTY, AND PROPERTY: READINGS IN THE AMERICAN POLITICAL TRADITION. By Francis W. Coker, Ed. New York: Macmillan, 1942. Pp. xv, 881. \$4.25.

To a considerable number of collections of readings on American thought now available,

two new but rather different works are added. The first of these, *Of the People*, is edited by two professors of English, Professor Warfel (University of Maryland) and Professor Manwaring (Wellesley College). They have to a considerable extent accomplished their purpose of giving us a book which "differs from any that has yet been made." Part I, containing selections from authors ranging from Walt Whitman and Robert Frost to D. W. Brogan and Charles A. Beard, sets forth the basic democratic beliefs of the American people, while the remainder of the book is devoted to "democracy in action."

There are a few excerpts from the writings of such men as John Adams and Thomas Jefferson, but most of the selections are from contemporaries: Franklin D. Roosevelt, Harold J. Laski, David Cushman Coyle, Ralph Henry Gabriel, Murray Seasongood, Archibald MacLeish, to mention a few. Altogether there are more than one hundred excerpts or complete essays. Many of these are excellent examples of editing, complete with references. Contributions of the film and radio have not been neglected.

An unusual feature of the book is the fifty-four pages of notes, questions, and exercises—one such set for each selection. The quality varies, but it is generally good. For either lower-division college students or those on the senior high school level, in English and social-science classes, this feature of the book will be quite valuable.

Professor Coker's book is good, but for the most part it is old wine poured into a new bottle. The four parts, democracy *versus* aristocracy, political authority and civil liberties, government and property rights, and the problem of change, contain mostly excerpts from eighty works and almost as many men. The whole historical period of America, from the early colonial days to the contemporary period, is covered. The contributions and contributors are familiar, and the former are generally available already. For these reasons the work is more conventional and less valuable than the former. Without question the selections are excellent and representative, each of which is preceded by a brief biographical sketch or comment.

The authors selected range from John Winthrop to Norman Thomas; the selections from Fisher Ames' "The Danger of American Liberty" to Thorstein Veblen's *Theory of the Leisure Class*. Several decisions of the Supreme Court of the United States find an appropriate place.

The book will constitute a good source for students of American political thought, and a

handy reference for anyone who finds useful a collection of writings on socio-political questions. For the average high school senior or college freshman, *Of the People* will be more readable, interesting, and suitable.

CHARLES P. SCHLEICHER

University of Utah

EDUCATION IN A DEMOCRACY. Edited by Newton Edwards. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1941. Pp. xi, 160. \$1.55.

EDUCATION FOR DEATH: THE MAKING OF THE NAZI. By Gregor Ziemer. New York: Oxford, 1941. Pp. 208. \$2.00.

It can be assumed that these two volumes were sent together for review more by accident than by design, for it is impossible to conceive of two books that describe two such different worlds. The one presents a terrifying and almost unbelievable picture of the basest abuse of education as an instrument of control that the world has ever witnessed. The other discusses the achievements of American education and the tasks still ahead of it to implement those ideals which civilized human beings have been struggling for centuries to attain. The contrast between the two diametrically opposed concepts of education is discussed by Ziemer in a chapter which he entitles "Education for Life."

Ziemer traces the process of education from the homes for expectant mothers who, whether in or out of wedlock, glory in the fact that they are to produce children for Hitler, to the final ceremony of the university students who demonstrate what their education has done for them by burning the Talmud, the Koran, the Bible, the words of Shakespeare, and the Treaty of Versailles. From the pre-school to the university the gruesome story is the same. Nor are the inmates in the schools for the feeble-minded spared from Heiling Hitler in the neighborhood of the lethal chamber which is to assure the perpetuation of the purity of the Aryan race. The story is a record of Ziemer's observations, conversations, and collected documents. The fact that he was allowed access to the schools through bribery is not without its significance, nor can the lessons which he heard on the United States and the place of the United States in the Nazi dream of conquest be considered unimportant for those who still have lingering doubts about the justification of the war. Ziemer's account of "Education for Death" is so terrifying as to seem incredible to some who have not followed "The

Making of Nazis" as the present writer has done since the scourge began. What Ziemer has achieved is to give concrete illustrations for the theories of education which have been known and by implication to reveal the formidable post-war task of reeducating the German people to become decent members of the human family again.

To turn from Ziemer's book to *Education in a Democracy*, a series of lectures delivered in 1940-41 under the Walgreen Foundation by members of the Faculty of Education of the University of Chicago and edited by Professor Newton Edwards, is to turn from the murk of barbarism to the light of day. Although a compilation, there are a number of common emphases throughout the book. In view of the recent history of educational theory the repeated references to such ideas as the bases of social cohesion, the need of common values, the preservation of essential racial experiences, the place of vicarious experience, and the dependence of freedom on a knowledge of the past mark a new and much-needed note in American education. The fundamental contrast between "Education for Death" and "Education for Life" is pointed out by Professor Edwards at the close of his discussion of American Educational Ideals in the terse statement that "The schools and colleges we have established and maintained have been and are symbols of our faith that we can solve the problems of human living through trained intelligence without resort to the dictates of arbitrary power." It is from this point of view that the major issues in American education—social cohesion, functions of education, individual adjustment, the curriculum and democratic ideals, teaching and administration, new educational services, and the university's responsibility for education in a democracy—are presented and discussed.

Both books are important contributions; both can be strongly recommended to students who wish to understand the meaning and obligation of education in a democracy.

I. L. KANDEL

Teachers College  
Columbia University

BUILDING THE CANADIAN NATION. By George W. Brown. Toronto: Dent, 1942. Pp. x, 478. \$2.25.

This book, by a professor of history at the University of Toronto, is the most recently published text for use in Canadian secondary schools. It



will be of value to that growing number of American teachers who realize the need to give more attention to Canada and Canadian affairs.

*Building the Canadian Nation* is probably the best history of Canada that has yet been done for the secondary-school level. It has a fine format and good illustrations. The economic and cultural development of Canada are considered within the theme of her political story. Valuable teaching aids are found in five fine chronological tables, excellent schematic maps, and useful reading lists—including fiction material—at the end of each chapter.

Professor Brown's friendly but frank discussion of American events will help add a cause-and-effect consideration to much that our country has done. The text, and the schematic maps, will help us overcome our failure to see United States history as part of a great continental story. The discussion of mutual events and problems will foster a feeling of fellowship between the two nations. From this book many American students will probably learn for the first time about such things as the Joint International Commission; that Alexander Bell, William Osler, Samuel Cunard, Frederick Banting are Canadian names; that Red Fief Wheat came from Canada; or that Canadian troops have defeated American troops on more than one occasion. If you live west of the Allegheny Mountains you will get a clue here to much local history which is seldom hinted at in our own texts.

Because Professor Brown's book is a history, and nothing more, it has distinct limitations for use in American high schools if a whole and integrated picture of Canada is to be had. Canadian geography is only sketchily outlined; the political and economic structure and problems of Canada are not treated; her social problems are not defined. For these aspects Americans will have to look to other materials.

Even as a history text the book seems, to this reviewer, to have some faults. A good colored physical map and more integration of history and geography would make the characters and events of Canada's story more vivid and meaningful. Some of the lives and episodes that make up Canada's story seem strangely cut short. Professor Brown does not tell his readers that the rebel Louis Riel was hanged. Of Mackenzie's followers he says, "innocent people suffered"—he does not say that ninety-two were banished for life to the wilds of northwest Australia. There is no hint that British Columbia once toyed with the idea of union with the United States. The

"Manitoba school problem" is not mentioned. Unless one learns it from other sources, the racial and church problems of Quebec do not exist. Perhaps an American reviewer should not raise these points; perhaps Canadian educators have reasons for omitting them. But such omissions would seem to obscure some of the color and strife which have helped forge a great and noble nation, and made it what it is in actuality today.

The general advantages of this book, however, outweigh these shortcomings. A reading of *Building the Canadian Nation* will help make American teachers and students glad that they have such a people for a neighbor and proud to call them "our good neighbor."

For geography, the sections dealing with physiographic regions in Canada in J. Russell Smith and M. Ogden Phillips' *North America* (Harcourt Brace: New York, 1940) will be helpful. A. L. Burt's *A Short History of Canada for Americans*, chapter 12 (University of Minnesota Press; Minneapolis, 1942) will give the details of Canadian government. Scott's *Canada Today* (Oxford University Press: New York, 1939) will give an overview of problems facing Canada.

KENNETH E. GELL

Charlotte High School  
Rochester, New York

INTER-AMERICAN AFFAIRS: 1941. Edited by A. P. Whitaker. New York: Columbia University Press, 1942. Pp. vii, 240. \$3.00.

*Inter-American Affairs* is a book of 175 pages, plus 54 pages of appendices. The latter are, for the most part, valuable records of exports and imports of the Latin-American countries to and from the United States; population tables; and a chronology of the events of the year 1941. These tables are drawn from government documents, so they are reliable. There are also three excellent maps of Latin-America: one of its position relative to the rest of the world, another of its physical features, and a third of the air lines to, from, and in the area.

The body of the book itself consists of six chapters, four of which review most carefully individual phases of the events of the year 1941 in the nations to the south of us. The events chosen for discussion deal largely but not exclusively with relations with the United States. Considerable attention is also given to the British, German, and Italian aspects of events in Latin-America.

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history of Pan-Americanism since the first North American call for a conference at Washington, including all of the intermediate meetings and the two conferences of ministers which occurred in 1941. At this point there occurs to me the only unfavorable comment I might make on this book. There is no reference made to the origin of the Pan-American ideal in the mind of Simon Bolívar, nor of his attempt to call such a conference and its failure. Since that time the Latin-American nations have held a number of international conferences, dealing with economic, social, and political questions, to which we were not invited. It seems, then, that at a time when we are trying so hard to erase the ill-will created in the Latin-American mind by our assumption of superiority and leadership in everything, it would do us no harm to recognize this early attempt of one of their great leaders, even though it came to nothing at the time.

Otherwise this is a valuable book for mature students of Latin-America, and excellent as a reference for all who are interested in those nations. The authors and the sources of their information guarantee the volume as to its reliability, and its discussion of the politics, economics, culture, and social welfare of the Latin-American nations in 1941 is dependable beyond question.

I would like especially to commend the last chapter, headed "Summary and Prospect," which puts together in a masterly manner the information and the conclusions from the preceding chapters. It is to be hoped that the series will be continued. It is suggested by its editor that it will be, if this volume is well-received.

LAURA F. ULRICK

New Trier Township High School  
Winnetka, Illinois

NEW WORLD NEIGHBOR SERIES. Boston: Heath, 1941-42.

*Children of Mexico.* By Dorothy Childs Hogner. Pp. 64. 40¢.

*Ootah and His Puppy.* By Marie Ahnighito. Pp. 64. 40¢.

*Letters from Guatemala.* By Delia Goetz. Pp. 56. 32¢.

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*Exploring the Jungle.* By Jo Besse McElveen Waldeck. Pp. 56. 32¢.

- Rico, the Young Rancher.* By Patricia Crew Fleming. Pp. 64. 40¢.  
*The Gaucho's Daughter.* By Katherine G. Pollock. Pp. 56. 32¢.  
*Up Canada Way.* By Helen Dickson. Pp. 64. 40¢.  
*Riches of South America.* By V. Wolfgang von Hagen. Pp. 56. 32¢.  
*Riches of Central America.* By J. Wolfgang von Hagen. Pp. 64. 40¢.  
*Boys of the Andes.* By Alice Desmond, Alida Malkus, and Ednah Wood. Pp. 56. 32¢.  
*Around the Year in Iceland.* By Elizabeth Yates. Pp. 64. 40¢.  
*Along the Inca Highway.* By C. Alida Malkus. Pp. 56. 32¢.  
*Six great Men of Brazil.* By Vera Kelsey. Pp. 63. 40¢.

If we should begin with the small child in order to have adult citizens with neighborly hemispheric consciousness, this series of bright little books has a contribution to make to elementary education. Bound in attractively colored boards, rather copiously illustrated in water colors (many reproduced in color), these are stories of boys and girls of all of the Americas and what they experience as they go about the job of living. Each volume has pronouncing glossary, sometimes illustrated, and the end papers of each volume are an animated map appropriate to the locale of the stories in the volume. The stories are full of dialogue, brightly written for the most part, and child-centered. The psychology is strictly positive—nowhere are the peoples or their doings treated as "strange" or unusual. They have been listed above in the order of difficulty.

These books could be used primarily as readers, or as social studies reading, or as pastime reading. Covering the Americas from Greenland and Iceland to Argentine and Chile, the boys and girls of these stories (about eight to twelve years of age) go about their play and their daily tasks, live the lives of their respective families. Through their doings and through their contacts with nature and the people about them, the reader learns much of the geography, climate, resources, and people of the Americas.

Some of the volumes contain several unrelated stories, while others have several episodes concerning the same child or children. For example, *Children of Mexico* has the story of a rural Indian boy, another of a city girl, and still another of the Spanish son of a *haciendado*. Together the three stories convey a wealth of information about Mexico and Mexicans. *Ootah and His Puppy* is

episodes in the life of an Eskimo boy in northern Greenland. With Ootah and his sled dog, there are seal, walrus, and bird hunting, building a kayak, making clothing, building winter and summer homes; and, above all, Ootah meets some white men. In *Letters from Guatemala*, Delia Goetz uses the device of an American boy writing to a friend at home as he learns of Guatemalan schools, history, holidays, and banana and coffee plantations. Jo Besse Waldeck tells in *Exploring the Jungle* of an expedition up the Cuyuni River to the place where the boundaries of Brazil, Venezuela, and British Guiana should meet. With this variety of approaches and devices, the young reader is saved tedium and can see from several points of view. As far as the child reader is concerned, the stories themselves will be the center of interest. In almost no case is story sacrificed in order to include information.

WAYNE ALVORD

Community High School  
Pekin, Illinois

- GOOD NEIGHBOR SERIES. By Sydney Greenbie.  
 Evanston: Row Peterson, 1942. Pp. 84. 56¢.  
*Three Island Nations: Cuba, Haiti, Dominican Republic.*  
*Next-Door Neighbor: Mexico.*  
*The Central Five: Guatemala, Honduras, El Salvador, Nicaragua, Costa Rica.*  
*By Caribbean Shores: Panama, Colombia, Venezuela.*  
*Children of the Sun: Peru, Ecuador, Bolivia.*  
*The Fertile Land: Brazil.*  
*Between Mountain and Sea: Chile.*  
*Republics of the Pampas: Argentina, Paraguay, Uruguay.*

The author of this series obviously had in mind purposes different from those of the authors of the New World Neighbors Series. Here the purpose is not so much to acquaint the reader with the daily lives of the dwellers in the other Americas as to create a bond of sympathy and an understanding of the sociological, economic, and political relationships among Latin Americans as they have grown out of the past. The result, a by no means feeble implementation of the purpose, is in no sense a full history of the Latin Americas. It is not a history of nations at all. It is the history of the people, and as such makes clear that the so-frequent upheavals in Latin-American countries are in part the conflict of two cultures, Indian versus Spanish (and Portuguese), and in part the struggles of democratic versus anti-democratic elements.

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Mr. Greenbie cites four things as common to all the Americas: the Good Neighbor policy, a hero in the person of Columbus, a great wrong in the exploitation of the Indians and the introduction of slavery, and the struggles for national independence and for personal liberty. The Good Neighbor Series is by way of demonstration of that thesis.

Boys and girls, and teachers too, will enjoy reading the various volumes of this series. The writing is vigorous, clear, and has dramatic quality. It is historical anecdote used to illuminate the present, for there is much attention to the present. Illustrations designed both to inform and to stimulate interest are plentiful. There are maps, pen sketches, and full-page water colors (in color). Almost without exception these are apt and helpful as well as eye-appealing. Technical terms are explained in foot notes. Spanish and Portuguese terms are pronounced both in the text and in a glossary.

The idea of publishing the Good Neighbors as a series of eight pamphlets rather than as one book is a good one. The bright paper covers are more eye-catching than boards, and it is obviously advantageous to have eight pieces of read-

ing matter rather than one. The content is such that the series can be used either as textbook or as supplementary reading. Each volume has questions on the text and questions for discussion. Sources of information are listed by the author.

The principal negative criticism is directed at what seems to this reviewer to be over attention to the Indians and to the Indian cultures of antiquity. Neither historically nor currently is the Indian the center of the scene in Latin America. If he were, Indo-America would be a much more commonly used term.

In dealing with matters controversial within and among the American nations, Mr. Greenbie exercises high objectivity while at the same time casting more light on the issues and their causations than most writers are able or willing to do. An outstanding example of such illumination is the treatment of the repatriation of Mexican oil lands and the breakup of the large land holdings. It is pleasant, too, to read of the geography, the resources, the transportation facilities, and the like, of the Latin-American countries in accounts that are examples of writing skill rather than examples of encyclopedic compilation. Furthermore, publisher and author have collaborated

to make the story run by introducing a device not seen elsewhere by this reviewer. A great deal of dialogue is used for the sake of reality and liveliness. A note explains that where the quotation marks are in boldface, the words were actually written or spoken by the person to whom they are attributed, while lightface marks indicate fictionalization. The result is a happy one.

Suitable for junior or senior high school use, although intended for the seventh-grade level, the Good Neighbors Series is distinctly a contribution to the literature of neighborliness. While the scholarship is quite satisfactory, the stiffness and aloofness so common to scholarship are avoided in favor of a point of view which the Latin American would surely call *simpatico*.

WAYNE ALVORD

Community High School  
Pekin, Illinois

THE GUILT OF THE GERMAN ARMY. By Hans Ernest Fried. New York: Macmillan, 1942. Pp. xi, 426. \$3.50.

Our Government has pledged itself to the destruction of the Nazi regime and to the disarmament of Germany. In addition, the peace-planners in the Department of State are said to regard as necessary the occupation of Germany by United Nations forces for several years after the war is over. The book under review makes clear the reason for the adoption of these aims, but suggests certain modifications in them.

The author is an Austrian now connected with the New School for Social Research. He has collected a great amount of material from such sources as official records, biographies, and monographs. On the basis of this mass of data, Dr. Fried asserts that Naziism, with its plans to start another war, is not a product of the resentment aroused against the Treaty of Versailles. It is not a form of super-patriotism. Nor are economic factors especially important in its growth. Naziism is largely the creation of the officer caste of the old army, who saw in Hitler and his organization useful instruments for establishing a new type of militarism in Germany, and for conditioning the people to accept it, or at least not to oppose it with any real vigor, in spite of the sincere hatred of war that was so widespread among them.

It was from the army officers, and especially from those of the "shock troops" of the First World War, as Dr. Fried shows, that Nazism derived most of its ideas and practices, though dur-

ing the process of borrowing and fusion with its own demagoguery, the higher standards of morals and conduct in certain limited phases of life which the imperial officers possessed, at least in theory, were vulgarized or destroyed.

On the basis of his findings, Dr. Fried argues that what must be destroyed in Germany is not merely the Nazi Party or the Nazi regime, but the militarism of which it is the embodiment. This can be accomplished, he maintains, not through complete disarmament or through a prolonged military occupation of the country by foreign troops, but through the organization and arming of the democratic anti-militarist forces in Germany, who would then be required to assume the responsibility of preventing the growth of another conspiracy in their country against world-peace.

F. R. FLOURNOY

College of Emporia

SOCIAL INSURANCE AND ALLIED SERVICES. By Sir William Beveridge. Reproduced from English Edition. New York: Macmillan, 1943. Pp. 302. \$1.00.

A committee was directed in 1941 by the British House of Commons to survey the existing forms of social insurance, both national and local, and make recommendations for a unified comprehensive plan. After extensive studies, and with the advice of experts, including insurance and government actuaries, the chairman of the committee, Sir William Beveridge, released what may be regarded as the ultimate in blueprints for post-war economic rehabilitation.

The committee found that British schemes of social insurance and allied services had grown piece-meal, resulting in ineffective overlapping and waste. A remarkable statement, considering the unsurpassed British record of such schemes operating during the past 45 years! It found a "complex of disconnected administrative organs." The committee's recommendations point the way to freedom from want. The principles laid down include the principle that "social security must be achieved by cooperation between the State and the individual." The Parliament is asked to substitute one general enactment for all existing piece-meal legislation; to set up now, during the war, a national authority entrusted with decisions of principle and detail, but to leave the determination of rates of benefit and compensation to the post-war days when the level of prices is better known.

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The proposed plan is frankly stated to be a method of redistributing income, of translating the words of the Atlantic Charter into deeds, and of regarding the object of government in peace and war as the happiness of the common man, who without a means test is entitled to minimum subsistence guarantees, yet expected by individual initiative to exceed the national economic minimum. The report concludes that security is not inconsistent with initiative and personal responsibility. The report merits American study.

MELVILLE J. BOYER

Allentown High School  
Allentown, Pennsylvania

WORKING WITH RURAL YOUTH. By Edmund DeS. Brunner. Washington: American Council on Education, 1942. Pp. xiii, 113. \$1.20.

Here is a candid account of an experiment in democratic organization and procedure demonstrating cooperative ways of bridging the great gap between social resources and the needs of rural youth. For thirty months, with restricted budget and limited personnel, the American Council Rural Project stimulated faith in the democratic process through voluntary coordination of agencies, services, and programs in fifteen counties and over one hundred rural communities, representative of "a very wide range of geographic, social, and economic situations."

Characteristic obstacles encountered included drastic changes in a nation at war, the inertia of vested interests, the desire for ready-made programs, inter-agency competition, urban domination of rural agencies, executives with "dual personalities," and "institutions which tend to forget, save as rationalizations, the needs and purposes that called them into being." But cooperative activity programs do stand forth in contrast with the above difficulties. Folk dancing, occupational guidance, practical arts, community calendars, youth councils, and leadership conferences were widespread. Benefits in the shape of great amounts of unpaid service, adult awakening, leadership training, defense courses, and youth morale building are cited along with the financial matching of funds by local agencies at a ratio of three to one as evidence of the sincerity of cooperation.

But the last thirteen pages of this little book really constitute the gold mine for the tired educator. Here findings are set forth establishing the function of adults in rural projects, faith

in youth and local initiative as vital untapped resources, recognition of the sociological neighborhood, the needs of older youth, the survey, and youth-program principles covering such key concepts as participation, integration, needs, and resources. The concluding chapter, entitled "Today and Tomorrow," is especially challenging in its spade-calling directness. For rural youth, the product of two decades of terrible agricultural depression, while not apathetic about the war, is concerned to the point of fatalism about the future, and "their concern is that the sacrifice of their lives in part or in whole shall have a better recompense than that of their fathers."

Criticisms, which should not tarnish the real down-to-earthness of this report on an experiment in social engineering, may be that, short as it is, it has a tendency toward the repetitious, and that "Working [to get adults to see and meet needs] with Rural Youth" might better have described the emphasis given in the book. Certainly all persons interested in promoting the democratic process and advancing the interests of youth, could read this book with profit.

RONALD B. EDGERTON

Laboratory Schools  
University of Chicago

## Publications Received

- Charvat, William, and Kraus, Michael. *William Hickling Prescott*. New York: American Book, 1943. Pp. cxlii, 466. \$1.50.
- Emery, Julia. *Background of World Affairs*. Yonkers: World Book, 1942. Pp. x, 324. \$1.76.
- Fellner, William J. *A Treatise on War Inflation: Present Policies and Future Tendencies in the United States*. Berkeley: University of California Press, 1942. Pp. x, 180. \$2.00.
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